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## CHAPTER I.

### EUROPE.

EUROPE, the smallest of the continents of the Old World, is 2,550 miles long, from Cape Matapan, in latitude  $35^{\circ}$ , to the North Cape, in latitude  $72^{\circ}$ ; and 1,900 in breadth, from Cape Clear, in Ireland, longitude  $10^{\circ}$  W., to the Ural Mountains, longitude about  $60^{\circ}$  E. It is bounded on the North by the Arctic Ocean and its gulfs; on the West by the Atlantic; and on the South by the Mediterranean and its dependent seas. Its eastern limits have been variously laid down by different authorities on Russian geography; it is enough here to state that from the Bosphorus it follows the shore of the Euxine, crosses from the Crimea to about the middle point of the west shore of the Caspian, and then turns north, and reaches the White Sea by a line roughly coinciding, first with the Ural river, and then with the mountains of the same name.

This mode of demarcation is, on several grounds, somewhat arbitrary; for, in the first place, there seems to be no very decisive reason why Russia, with its vast plains so much resembling those of Asia, should be considered as part of a different section of the

earth ; indeed, much of her European dominions belonged almost recently to Asiatic tribes, and was currently considered as forming part of that continent. In the second place, all that constitutes the characteristic unity of Europe would come much more clearly into view if we considered it to begin at the points of attachment of two great peninsulas—that of SCANDINAVIA on the north, containing Norway and Sweden, which is connected with Russian Lapland by an isthmus only 200 miles wide, from Tornea to the White Sea ; and the much larger and more important peninsula, if it may so be called, the isthmus of which lies between Königsberg and Kherson at the mouth of the Dnieper, and is therefore about 700 miles across. This latter contains (besides some of western Russia) Poland, Austria, Hungary, Germany, with Turkey in Europe and the provinces recently detached from it ; also Greece, Italy, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, France, Belgium, and Holland, with part of Denmark ; and it may, for distinctness' sake, be called the Continental Peninsula of Europe.

The Scandinavian peninsula is made by the great chain whose middle part is called the Dovre, which is nearer the west or Norwegian side, but constantly sends out spurs into Sweden. The Continental Peninsula contains the principal mountain axis of Europe, which begins with the Pyrenees and the parallel ranges of Spain (considered as one), and continues from thence, with interruptions, through the Alps and the mountains of Dalmatia, Albania, and Greece ; after which it crosses into Asia Minor, and

is carried on through the Armenian mountains, the Persian Elburz,\* and the Hindoo Khosh, up to the north-west frontier of India.

The Western Alps are the boundary of two great basins, which together constitute the greater part of Western Europe. The first of these lies between the principal chain of the Alps and the Atlas range in North-west Africa; it contains the western or Tyrrhene section of the Mediterranean, and appears to have been closed in early times by an isthmus joining Cape Carthage with Sicily and Italy. Its depression may be conjectured from the fact that some parts of the Western Mediterranean have been sounded to a depth of 13,000 feet. North of the Alps a much smaller and shallower basin, not covered with water, is formed by a continuous line of lower mountains which leaves the Alps near Geneva, and, after a long northward and eastward sweep, under the names of the Jura, Vosges, Thuringerwald, Erzgebirge, Riesengebirge, and Carpathians, comes back in a loop to meet the outliers of the Alpine chain on the Danube, near Widin.

These two basins together constitute the chief mountain region of Europe; north of them lies a plain 600 miles long, the lowest depression of which is occupied by the shallow and dangerous Baltic. The flatness of the plain of North Germany (except at a few points) is almost unimaginable without seeing it.

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\* The name Elburz means in Persian 'shining mountain,' (that is, 'snow mountain,') and is applied to the Caucasus and to one of its chief peaks, as well as to the Persian chain.

Hour after hour the train moves on through districts resembling, on a vast scale, the bleak and bare tablelands which separate English river-basins in Derbyshire and elsewhere. It seems constantly as if the line *must* now at last descend into some river channel, and the eye find rest from its weariness ; but all rivers cross it nearly at right angles, and the rest never comes. Indeed, after Berlin the monotony becomes still greater ; the road to Moscow passing through miles upon miles first of bare plain or pine forest, and then of marshes. We are therefore not surprised when told that there have been vast and recurring astronomical cycles, during which all these low grounds were far below the waters of the sea—the northern ocean extending to the flanks of the Erzgebirge and Riesengebirge, the spurs of which then formed a host of northward capes and peninsulas ; and that the thousands of small lakes in North Germany, Sweden, and Finland, as well as the deposits of salt in the same countries, are reminders that the sea was once there.

The direction of the European mountain-chains of course governs that of its great international rivers. None of them lie south of the Alps ; the distance of these from the Mediterranean being too small to allow streams of the first magnitude to collect.\* It is on

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\* It has been recently stated that the Tiber passes through a single bridge at Rome a body of water equal to twice that of the Thames. It is, however, far from being as considerable a river as the Thames, as nine-tenths of the annual outfall comes down in great and transient floods ; the river being in its

the north side that we have such streams as the RHONE (Rhodanus) and RHINE (Rhenus), both rising in the S. Gotthard, one of the central masses of the Pennine Alps. The former is at once directed westward by the Bernese Alps, which bound its valley on the north; and passes into France, on its way to the Mediterranean, through the gorge of l'Ecluse, near Geneva, which separates the Alps from the Jura. The RHINE, on the contrary, is flung off from the S. Gotthard towards the north, and retains this general direction till it reaches the German Ocean; making, however, in Switzerland itself, a great westward curve, as far as Basle, round the outliers of the Bernese Alps, and passing in the course of it through the great lake of Constance, as the Rhone does through that of Geneva. Both these rivers, it will be observed, rise on the central chain, and penetrate its outliers on the north; the DANUBE, on the other hand, rises between the Alps and the German chain, running without cataracts, and almost without rapids, from its source in the Black Forest till it reaches the Black Sea. The ELBE and VISTULA belong entirely to the German mountains, rising on opposite flanks of the Riesengebirge, and running in nearly parallel courses to the Baltic. It will be seen at once how admirably these international streams, even apart from

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ordinary state almost dry, so as to justify the sneer of the German emperor, who, when requested to reside at Rome, asked "whether the Romans thought he was going to leave the Rhine and Danube, and live by the muddy ditch which they called the Tiber."

those which will be described with the countries to which they exclusively belong, contribute to the civilization of Europe. For instance, the great highway of commerce from Persia to Western Europe was originally by the Danube and Rhine. Trading vessels were speedily carried down these streams by the current; upwards they used to advance by sending their boats ahead to cast an anchor, and then, by means of windlasses on board, hauling the vessel up to the point where it had been made fast, while a second anchor was being carried ahead. In like manner it was easy to travel up the Rhone and its tributary the Saone, and thence to the Seine or Loire. The ELBE was another of these great commercial streams, navigable from Hamburg up to Prague in Bohemia, and carrying the commerce of the maritime towns into the heart of Germany.

This arrangement of rivers has been a great cause of the predominance of Europe over other continents. Other reasons of a still more general character deserve attention. The first of these, beyond doubt, is its narrowness as compared with Asia, which of itself tended to density of population, and therefore to improvement. This cause began to work far more strongly when the charm of the southern peninsulas of Italy, Spain, and Greece had attracted to them a disproportionate population, and when the inhabitants were forced, under pain of wanting subsistence, to improve their agriculture and to cultivate a number of arts subsidiary to it. The next cause for European improvement is closely connected with this. It is that

in Europe outward nature is not too vast or too strong for men and their work. A day's walking will overcome the highest mountain pass; even without railways a vigorous horseman has been known to cross half Europe without stopping.\* The rivers are not too large to be bridged; the forests can be penetrated; there are no tropical growths to overrun and defeat man's attempts to raise artificial crops, no swarms of locusts or other insects to turn "the garden of Eden" into a "desolate wilderness." At the same time nature is beneficent on a vast scale in the abundance of moisture which the aerial currents from the Atlantic supply, making it impossible that there should be in Europe any arid deserts like those of Asia or Africa. To these causes must be added some others, on which the learned geographer Ritter has commented in a striking way. Europe, he says, is uniform in its natural productions to an extent unknown to any other continent. Wheat may be grown at Archangel, upon a soil of which only the upper layer is thawed, as well as beneath the ardent sunshine of Italy and Sicily. As far north as the mouth of the Dwina, in latitude 65°, there is a spot known by the name of 'Rose Island,' from its being covered with wild specimens of this familiar flower. So the fir tree of Northern Russia may be seen coming down the slopes of the Maritime Alps, to meet the grey olive foliage below. In Serbia, again, all the well-known trees and

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\* The great Duke of Alva in his youth rode, on the most romantic of errands, from Hungary to Spain and back in seventeen days.—MOTLEY, *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, ii. 96.



flowers of England may be seen in the woods. The result is that the inhabitants of one country in Europe have a kind of citizenship in all others, and are not hindered by unsuitableness of climate from using to the full the means of communication with which they are so abundantly provided. A Hindoo could not live in Siberia; but the Italians of Napoleon's army, in 1812, are said to have been even more able than others to endure the horrors of the retreat from Russia. So the Northmen at different times have made their homes in France, in Sicily, and at Constantinople as guards of the Greek emperors; not to mention Iceland, which they have so often used as a refuge from the tyranny to which they were exposed in their natural and more genial homes.

The remarkable way in which the seas of Europe penetrate inward has already been noticed in part. No inland sea on the globe can compare with the Mediterranean in this point, especially when its dependencies, the Euxine and the Seas of Marmora and Azof, are considered. The result of the position of these and of the Baltic is that, though Europe is three times smaller than Africa, and only half the size of South America, she far exceeds either in the length of her seaboard, having 32,000 miles of coast, as compared with 28,500 in Africa, and 25,770 in South America. The advantage of this will be seen in a strong light if we compare\* the relative cost a few

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\* Just before the Bridgewater Canal was made from Liverpool to Manchester, the land-carriage of cotton between these places cost £2 per ton. At about the same time we can ascertain what

years ago of land and water carriage ; not to mention that the small size of these inland seas was such as to invite, instead of daunting, navigation.

Lastly, Europe has the singular privilege, not only of occupying a middle position among continents (such as is indicated by the geometrical centre of the *land* hemisphere of the globe being nearly at London), but of having the most advantageous possible points of contact with other continents. Thus Greece was opposed, not to any of the Asiatic deserts, but to the lovely and fertile Ionia ; she also shared with Italy the advantage of nearness to the healthy and corn-growing shores of Northern Africa. Similarly, in later times, the population of Northern Europe could conduct their emigrations along a parallel of latitude into Canada or the northern states of the present Union ; while Spain and Portugal were guided in the same way to the central districts of America, each race thus finding the climate which harmonised with its character, and allowed of almost exactly its former mode of life. Thus, when the 'narrowness' already referred to ceased to be advantageous to the nationalities of Europe, they succeeded in finding, not merely new habitations, but, in the fullest sense of the word, new homes.

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it cost to fetch goods from Calcutta, as Mr. MacCulloch gives a copy of a charter-party signed in 1831, in which the owner agreed for a freight of £5 12s. per ton, literally less than three times what it would have cost to take the same ton of goods the thirty-one miles from Liverpool to Manchester.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE BRITISH ISLES. ENGLAND AND WALES.

THE geographical character of the British Isles will be best understood if we consider Great Britain and Ireland as accidentally separated from one another, and from the continent of Europe, by channels not more than 600 feet deep, and as being essentially one triangular mass of land, lying between the parallels of  $50^{\circ}$  and  $58^{\circ} 30'$  N., and the meridians of  $2^{\circ}$  E. and  $10^{\circ}$  W. The side of the triangle extending from Cape Wrath, in Scotland, to Cape Clear, in Ireland, has a direct length of about 600 miles; that from Duncansby Head to the S. Foreland, in Kent, of 650 miles; and that from Cape Clear to the S. Foreland of 500; the last of these, however, only roughly corresponds with the south coast of England, several of the south-western counties being beyond it. The collective area of both islands is about 110,000 square miles; the collective population was 31,628,338 by the last census. The area of England alone is a little over 40,000 square miles, to which about 7,500 have to be added for Wales; the joint population of these two being nearly 23,000,000.

One of the most characteristic points of British

geography is the prevalence throughout of lines of formation running from south-west to north-east. This has been dwelt upon, as regards Scotland, by Mr. Geikie, and extended to Ireland by Mr. Jukes and Mr. Hull.

In England it gives the key to the direction of most of the hills, rivers, and inlets of the sea. Thus the Cheviots run in this way from the Solway to the mouth of the Tweed ; so do the Welsh ranges to be presently described, the Devonian heights from the Land's End upwards, and the two great escarpments of the oolite and the chalk, the former seen in the Cotswolds, the latter in the series of downs which extend from Salisbury Plain to the Thames, at Reading, and thence by the Chilterns to the Norfolk Wolds. Parallel with these are the courses of many principal rivers, such as the upper Severn, Warwickshire Avon, Dee, Weland, Great Ouse, and Trent ; and the direction of the chief estuaries, as the Solway, Morecambe Bay, the Bristol Channel, and the Wash. The chief exception to this general direction is that of the Pennine Range, which runs north and south from Carter Fell, in the Cheviots, to the Derbyshire Peak. As it stands on a base which rises gradually towards the north, it follows that the rivers flowing from its sides take in Lancashire a south-west and in Yorkshire a south-east, direction. In other cases valleys at right angles to the main river basins bring down tributary streams, such as the Wye, Teme, Soar, and many others. As the hill ranges just mentioned, as well as the mountains of Wales, Westmoreland, and Cumberland

(which will be described in their place), lie almost entirely on the west side of the island, it follows that the chief rivers of England must rise on their east flanks. Thus the most western source of the THAMES is at the 'Seven Springs' of the Churn, in Gloucestershire, a little way from Cheltenham, on the Cirencester road. As these are but four miles from the western edge of the Cotswold escarpment, it is only by these few miles of slope that the head-waters are prevented from going at once westward. Other reputed sources of the Thames are Syreford Spring, the head of the Colne, and Thames Head, near Cirencester, with its great well whence 3,000,000 gallons a day are pumped for the Thames and Severn Canal. But its chief feeder is the Kennet, which rises near Marlborough among the chalk hills, and joins it at Reading. The Thames becomes navigable for barges at Lechlade, 146 miles above London; cuts its way through the chalk downs at Reading, after passing Oxford, and by way of Windsor and London reaches the sea near Sheerness, after a course of 210 miles. The SEVERN rises at Maes Hafren, on the north-west flank of Plinlimmon. It begins its course in the normal north-east direction, but between Welshpool and Shrewsbury is turned first east, and then south, by the high ground joining Wales with the Pennines. It then breaks through the shale ridge at Wenlock, just south of the peculiarly insulated mass of the Wrekin, and flows past Worcester, Tewkesbury, and Gloucester, thence between the Cotswolds and the Forest of Dean to the Bristol Channel. Its total

course is 220 miles. It is navigable for ships of some burthen up to the docks at Gloucester, by help of a canal on the south bank, connecting this city with Berkeley; and its rise is so considerable during rains, that small sea-going vessels are built as high up as Bridgnorth, and sent down with the floods. At Worcester it receives the Teme, at Tewkesbury the Warwickshire Avon, and at Chepstow the Wye, which like itself rises on Plinlimmon. The TRENT has its source near Burslem in Staffordshire, receives from the Peak the beautiful Derwent and Dove, and from Leicestershire the Soar, and finally runs parallel with the Lincolnshire Wolds to the Humber. On it are Stoke, Burton, and Nottingham.

- \*.\* Other rivers in England will be mentioned along with their respective districts. It is, however, better to notice separately the curious network of streams made by the Welland, the Cambridge Ouse, the Cam, the Nen, and the Witham, with several smaller rivers. On the banks of these is the country of the Fens, which, before its area was diminished by draining, extended round the Wash from the neighbourhood of Lincoln to Huntingdon, Ely, Lynn Regis, and nearly to Norwich on the east. The slope of these river-basins is so slight (even Cambridge being less than 14 feet above the sea-level) that they formerly stagnated into vast marshes, occupied by a population quite different from the rest of England, and employed, not in agriculture, but in fishing and the capture of wild fowl, with the grazing of cattle where the ground was dry enough to bear a coarse grass called 'lid.' The Bedford Level, on the lower Nen and Welland, was drained by a company under Charles I. and the Commonwealth (1634-1649), mostly by cutting straight canals to increase the slope where the rivers themselves were winding. Much work of the same kind has since been effected, leading even to a plan for draining a con-

siderable part of the Wash itself. The most striking results were produced by Mr. Smeaton, who adopted the plan of carrying the mouth of his drains down to the level of low-water at spring-tides, and also of forming 'catch-water drains,' such as had long been used by Italian engineers, along the sides of the hills bordering the levels, and thus conveying much of the water to the sea without allowing it to reach the low grounds at all. A curious consequence of the way in which the Fen country and the Lincolnshire marshes are intersected by innumerable 'cuts' is, that these districts become very unattractive as a residence for the higher classes (who do not affect leaping-poles). Accordingly a system of small proprietorship still survives in some parts of them—the farmers showing the same passionate desire to possess land which is remarked on the Continent, and thus gaining in our own time much of the same independent spirit which rallied so many of them to Cromwell's standards in 1645.

In order to distinguish between the agricultural and the manufacturing districts of England, it is useful to draw a line along the Exe, in Devonshire, to the Bristol Channel, then by the Severn, Warwickshire Avon, and Trent, to the mouth of the latter, and thence again by the Yorkshire Wolds to the Tees. On the left of this lie all the mountain districts of England, all its coal, and most of its metals; consequently this is the section in which manufacturing and mining industry predominates. The country to the right of it embraces the greater part of the agricultural districts. To the excellent balance between the two sections the prosperity of England is mainly due—from the very large and profitable home-market which the farming districts afford to the products of the mill-country, and the abundant supplies of food which

they furnish, in return. There are also, as we shall presently see, other still more direct ways in which the pastoral districts have served the interest of manufactures.

English agriculture is best seen in the eastern counties of LINCOLN, NORFOLK, and SUFFOLK. There the size of the fields lends itself to steam-ploughing, and the style of husbandry is suggestive of the model farm, an impression which is strengthened by the manorial appearance of the farm-houses. Turnips, with wheat and other cereals, are grown in perfection. The grass on the drained fens sometimes feeds six sheep an acre, and four bullocks to ten acres; and that in districts where one hundred years ago tall church spires, and even lighthouses constructed on purpose, were the traveller's only guide over the pathless moors. The city of LINCOLN (Lindum), with a population of 27,000, crowns with its magnificent cathedral a high escarpment overlooking the Witham, which is navigable for small vessels to the sea at BOSTON, and connects with the Trent at Torksey by the Foss Dyke, originally a Roman canal. NORWICH, on the Wensum, just east of the Norfolk Wolds, has since the last century lost much of its honour as the chief manufacturing town of England. Defoe speaks of the city and its neighbourhood as employing in his time 120,000 workmen in its woollen and silk manufactures. Many of them, he says, were descended from Flemish refugees, who had escaped from Alva's tyranny, and had been established there by Queen Elizabeth. To these were afterwards added, on the



Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685, a considerable Huguenot colony, who gave a great spur to the trade of the town by their skill in making brocades and velvets, as well as clocks and watches. The population is now 80,000, and its chief remaining manufactures are those of crape, camlets, and shawls, the rest having migrated to the coal regions. IPSWICH (43,000), on the Orwell, the chief town of Suffolk, is a place of much industry. It has indeed lost the Huguenot linen trade for which it was once distinguished, but has replaced it by large works at which agricultural implements are made for all Europe. YARMOUTH (Garianonum, 41,000), on the Yare, was once the centre of the herring fisheries, but has now been partially superseded by Peterhead and other ports in Scotland. It is said to be still jealous of the neighbouring LOWESTOFT; in the middle ages it often tried to crush its fisheries by force or fraud, alleging a royal charter which allowed of no market for fish within seven 'leucaë,' which was explained to mean seven leagues. Lastly, the small town of BURY S. EDMUNDS (13,300), on the Lark, a tributary of the Cam, was celebrated up to the Reformation for its magnificent and powerful abbey, the home of Jocelyn of Brakelond and Abbot Sampson. Its feudal oppressions led to the popular rebellions of 1327 and 1381, so well described by Mr. Green,\* and throw a lurid light on the relations between such corporations and their dependants.

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\* GREEN, *Stray Studies*, p. 213.

The county of Essex comes down to the northern bank of the Thames, and there consists chiefly of marshes so unhealthy, until drained, that, according to Defoe, it was not uncommon, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, for the acclimatized natives, who brought their wives from a distance, to be married twenty times or more in the course of an average life. The low lands are now guarded by 300 miles of embankment; arrangements were made in 1803 to lay them under water in case of a French invasion from the Essex side. HARWICH, at the mouth of the Orwell (7,000), is the best harbour on the east coast, and one of the nearest points for communication with Holland and Belgium. Other small towns in Essex are CHELMSFORD, MALDON, and COLCHESTER. Last of this eastern group are the counties of HERTFORD, CAMBRIDGE, and HUNTINGDON, with chief towns of the same name. Together with Lincoln, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, they formed the 'Seven Associated Counties' so well known in the Great Rebellion, S. IVES, the home of Cromwell, being on the edge of the fens, near Huntingdon. The cities of ELY and CAMBRIDGE are especially distinguished, the former for its admirable cathedral, the latter for its glorious university, the home of Newton and Bentley, where King's and Queen's Colleges, founded respectively by Henry VI. and Elizabeth of York, are still younger by two hundred years than the earliest on the roll.

Sir C. Lyell has commented at length on the great waste constantly suffered by the coast of the eastern counties. Harwich, he says, owes its importance to

the destruction of the earlier town of Orwell. Dunwich, in Suffolk, again, was once the chief seaport on the coast, and a flourishing and populous city; all has now disappeared except twenty houses. Parts of Harwich and Aldeburgh are also gone. The same writer makes the important remark that many of the east-coast rivers now enter the sea at points lower than where they used; a change which he ascribes to the superior force of the tidal wave from the north as compared with that coming through the English Channel. Another remarkable fact has been observed with regard to the same rivers;\* namely, that the fish in them are identical in species, not with those in the western rivers of England, but with those of Sweden and north-east Europe—a strong evidence for the early connection of England with Holland, which has been already alluded to, and to which, according to Professor Ramsay, is to be attributed the existence in our island of the continental quadrupeds in general.

South of the lower Thames we have the great agricultural district called the Weald of Kent and Sussex. Here the chalk which once covered the whole of these counties has been carried away by denudation, except on the two edges, where it forms the North and South Downs (passed respectively by the Reigate and Hassock's Gate tunnels on the Brighton Railway). Near the various edges of the Downs are CANTERBURY, ROCHESTER, and CHICHESTER, all cathedral cities; and on the Weald itself

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\* See Mr. Kingsley's excellent article on the Fens, in *Good Words*, May, 1867.

TONBRIDGE (8,200), ASHFORD (8,400), and MAIDSTONE (26,200), with other smaller towns. Nothing can be more beautiful than the appearance of the hop-grounds by which they are often surrounded, whether the plants are raised on high poles, or trained on wires on a kind of horizontal network. CANTERBURY (21,000) has a collection of ecclesiastical buildings unparalleled in England. S. Martin's is the mother church of the country; the monastery of S. Augustine has been nobly restored as a missionary college; and the finest part of the cathedral is still called 'Becket's Crown.' ROCHESTER, with the adjacent CHATHAM and STROUD, constitutes an important seaport and arsenal on the Medway, which, in spite of the shortness of its course, is peculiarly deep. These towns have together a population of 80,000. At the mouth of the Medway, in the Isle of Sheppey, is SHEERNESS (14,000); this was taken by De Ruyter in 1667, during his celebrated raid upon our dockyards. In 1818 the celebrated engineer Rennie proposed to form in the lower Medway a great central national harbour and arsenal. The plan, however, remains unexecuted up to the present time.

Few parts of the English coast have suffered more change than the coast of Kent. The Isle of Thanet was once really divided from the mainland; inasmuch as the Roman fleets used to sail to London through a channel three furlongs wide, which has now become a mere marsh. At one end of this was Rutupiaë (or Richborough), at the other Regulbium (now Recul-

vers). The dangerous Goodwin Sands, opposite Sandwich, are thought by Sir C. Lyell to be the remnants of a former coast-line; and the Isle of Sheppey, with its excellent gardens, originally the work of Flemish immigrants, is in process of demolition. On the south coast of Kent the land has risen considerably. In Roman times, for instance, the harbour of Dover came up to the present suburb of Buckland, two miles inland. Romney Marsh, or Dungeness, has been formed partly by 'innings'—that is, by shutting out the sea artificially—partly by natural deposits of shingle, at the rate of about six yards annually. As the greater force of the sea in winter increases the rate of deposit, parts of this singular district are laid in a succession of ridges, by which the years during its formation may be counted, "like the rings of growth in timber," as Sir C. Lyell says. The consequence of this accumulation is that the village of Lymne (Portus Lemanis), near Folkestone, where Cæsar probably landed, and where vestiges of the Roman port still remain, is now three miles from the sea. Below the ancient coast-line is the canal cut across the marshes by Pitt's order in 1805, to serve as a check in case of the landing of French invaders; and every low beach on the south coast of Kent and Sussex is fringed with 'Martello towers,' which were armed with heavy guns in order, as it was hoped, to make a descent there impossible.

- Ken was in the middle ages supreme in English maritime affairs, and very considerable in manufactures. The Cinque Ports were Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Hastings,

only the last being in Sussex. In the time of Edward I. they had to provide fifty-seven large ships at their own cost, during fifteen days at a time, for the public service. In return for this they had special privileges, first conferred on them by Edward the Confessor, including the right of themselves punishing murder and robbery with death, of flotsom, which gave them property flung up by the waves, and several others. Iron was smelted at many places in the county, as will be presently explained; besides which cloth making was extensively carried on there, having spread from London into this and the neighbouring counties in order to be near the places where the wool was produced. Hence we can understand the determined resentment with which the Kentish men in Henry VI.'s time regarded the loss of the French provinces, as both their chief interests were sure to suffer from the loss of markets abroad. This was so universal, that the forces for Cade's rebellion were collected, as Mr. Gairdner\* has shown, with the matter-of-fact order and regularity of a legal muster. The custom of 'gavel-kind' still rules inheritance in this county. According to it the landed property of an intestate father is divided among all the children, instead of going '*en bloc*' to the eldest son, as in most other parts of England.

The remaining counties of the south coast are HAMPSHIRE and DORSET, with which should be combined SURREY, BERKSHIRE, WILTSHIRE, and the ISLE OF WIGHT. Their centre is Salisbury Plain, a tableland about 32 miles long, from which the chalk regions of England ramify, one towards Beachy Head, in Sussex; a second to the North Foreland, in Kent; a third by the Marlborough Downs to Reading and the eastern counties; and a fourth through Dorsetshire to the sea. The chalk would in fact cover superficially all the midland and eastern counties of England, if it

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\* *Paston Letters*, vol. i., Introduction.

had not been in turn covered, in part of Hampshire and in the London basin, by a later deposit, and itself been stripped and carried off from the Weald of Sussex and Kent. It is to be remarked that small rivers, such as the Adur, Arun, Itchen, Test, generally find their way severally at right angles through the chalk ridges which border the sea, instead of uniting into larger streams. Hence we have on this coast, in addition to the great harbours of DOVER, PORTSMOUTH, and SOUTHAMPTON, a number of smaller ports, such as FOLKESTONE, NEWHAVEN, SHOREHAM, LITTLEHAMPTON, LYMINGTON, CHRISTCHURCH, and POOLE. DOVER itself has a population of 28,000. The castle is an old Roman fortress, with a system of galleries cut in the rock, which makes it a miniature Gibraltar. West of this is FOLKESTONE, and from thence to Winchelsea the level expanse of Romney Marsh, already described. Farther west, just at the point where the South Downs begin to touch the sea, is BRIGHTON, which in 1700 was a hamlet of twenty houses, called Brighthelmstone. About the middle of the century, a medical man announced for the first time the doctrine that "washing the body in sea water" is healthy, and, when this gained ground, Brighton was found a convenient spot for Londoners. In the present century it grew immensely from royal favour, being just within the constitutional distance of 50 miles, up to which it was supposed that the sovereign might go without an attendant minister, and has now a population of 90,000. The same sanitary cause has enormously increased S. LEONARD'S and

HASTINGS (36,000), with MARGATE (12,000), and RAMSGATE (15,000), in Kent. Westward from Brighton is PORTSMOUTH, on an inlet which appears to have been formed by the wreck of a line of coast formerly extending from Selsey Bill to Portland, and including what is now the Isle of Wight. It is one of our largest arsenals (114,000), and also one of the few English places regularly fortified with all the appliances of art (such, at least, as art was thirty years ago). Like the neighbouring commercial harbour of SOUTHAMPTON (53,000), it is well sheltered by the Isle of Wight, and has access to the sea either directly by Spithead, or westward by the Solent. The island itself has much striking scenery—long inlets called ‘chines’ perpetually cut into its south coast; at the south-east corner the Undercliff, a strip of land about a mile in width, and with cliffs overhanging the sea, is itself finely sheltered by a line of high crags above. Thus the climate is wonderfully mild, making VENTNOR a great resort for invalids. The contrast is great between this and the keen air of FRESHWATER, at the west end of the island, where the central chalk ridge runs into a sharp point, and is prolonged by the pinnacles of rock called ‘The Needles,’ which are considered by Professor Ramsay to be relics of the coast-line which originally connected the Isle of Wight with Portland Bill. Near the centre of the island, near NEWPORT, is CARISBROOK, where Charles I., and after him Sir H. Vane, were imprisoned. On the northern shore is RYDE, with Osborne, the Queen’s sea-palace, and COWES, the rendezvous of the Yacht



Squadron. About 40 miles to the west is the so-called ISLE OF PORTLAND, a large mass of valuable building stone worked by convicts; this is connected with the mainland by the Chesil Bank, a strange spit of pebbles and clay, a quarter of a mile wide, running for 10 miles almost parallel with the shore before it reaches Portland. Ships are *said* to have been actually flung across it into the kind of harbour beyond, during a stormy spring-tide. From the north-east corner of the Isle of Portland, the longest breakwater in the world has been thrown out in water more than 50 feet deep, enclosing a splendid harbour facing that of Cherbourg.

\* The principal inland towns in this region are WINCHESTER (16,000) and SALISBURY (14,000), the chief towns of Hampshire and Wiltshire, on the Itchen and Wiltshire Avon respectively. Both have cathedrals of the highest interest. The spire of Salisbury, the finest in England, is a landmark for a great distance on the plain; and the serious charm of the combined Norman and later work of Winchester is quite indescribable. Winchester College, the oldest of the English public schools, was completed in 1393 by William of Wykeham, the illustrious Chancellor of Edward III., who was also the chief architect of Windsor Castle. A peculiar beauty of this neighbourhood is the perfect transparency of the streams which intersect its water-meadows; nor are artists ever weary of the delicate effects of light and shade on the smooth chalk hills, mostly crowned with clumps of self-sown pine-trees. WIMBORNE MINSTER and SHERBORNE are both

Dorsetshire towns of extreme antiquity, as are also the port of POOLE and CORFE CASTLE, at the east end of this county.

\* \* Six miles north of Salisbury is the celebrated STONEHENGE, one of the finest 'rude stone' constructions in the world. It consisted of a great outside circle of double stones, with an architrave or cross-stone placed across each pair at the top. Within there was a second row of similar stones forming a horse-shoe, and within these again eleven others of igneous origin, brought from Cornwall or Ireland. Mr. Ferguson concludes\* that Stonehenge, as well as Avebury, near Marlborough, was not a temple, but the monumental record of some forgotten battle. Near Uffington, in Berkshire, is the celebrated 'Vale of Whitehorse,' so called from the monument whose triennial 'scouring' has been so well described by Mr. T. Hughes. Lastly, between Salisbury and Southampton is the historic 'New Forest,' 92,000 acres in extent, with about 6,000 still covered with timber. A quiet beauty has long ago settled over the ground ruthlessly laid waste by William the Conqueror, whence his slain successor was taken hurriedly to Winchester to be buried, but not to rest, under the cathedral tower which so soon crashed down upon his tomb.

The Midland district of England lies between the Eastern Counties, already described, and the Severn; containing therefore, first, the counties of SHROPSHIRE, CHESHIRE, STAFFORDSHIRE, DERBYSHIRE, LEICESTER, RUTLAND, and NOTTINGHAM; and below these, on a second line, WORCESTERSHIRE, WARWICKSHIRE, OXFORDSHIRE, NORTHAMPTON, BEDFORDSHIRE, BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, SURREY, and MIDDLESEX. The chief town of Northampton is PETERBOROUGH;

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\* See FERGUSON'S *Rude Stone Monuments*, p. 35.

of Surrey, GUILDFORD; of Middlesex, LONDON; of Shropshire, SHREWSBURY; of Rutland, OAKHAM and UPPINGHAM; the rest have capitals of their own name. As the manufacturing towns in these districts will be spoken of separately, those not so occupied will alone be mentioned here. Thus on the Thames we have OXFORD, called by Baron Bunsen the 'Queen of Cities,' not of course from its size (35,000) or wealth, but from the extraordinary beauty of its colleges, and the wonderful way in which they are grouped together, with the historic fame of the University. Lower down the Thames are ABINGDON, HENLEY, MAIDENHEAD, WINDSOR, and RICHMOND; and below London, GREENWICH, WOOLWICH, GRAVES-  
END, QUEENSBOROUGH, and SHEERNESS. Of these Greenwich is celebrated for its observatory, whence in English maps the meridians of longitude are measured; Woolwich for its arsenal and cannon foundries; Windsor for the stateliest palace possessed by any European sovereign, and for the glories of the neighbouring Eton, founded by Henry VI., in 1440, as a nursery for the splendid 'King's College,' just erected in Cambridge.

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house like that of Christ Church, raised out of the spoils of the monasteries by Wolsey, is therefore comparatively modern in such a city; which however, like the sister University, is again drawing to itself abundant munificence and establishing new foundations.

In going down the English part of the Severn, we meet first with SHREWSBURY, one of the most picturesque of English towns, nearly surrounded by a loop of the river: it was once a great bulwark against the Welsh, and in later times a centre of Shropshire society, such as Norwich was for its own county when the Dukes of Norfolk maintained there the free hospitality described by Macaulay. Next comes WORCESTER (34,000), at the junction of the Teme, with its fine cathedral and china works, GLOUCESTER (32,000), with its ship-canal to the lower Severn; and BRISTOL (183,000), till lately the second city of England, on the Gloucestershire Avon, a small but particularly deep tidal river with high craggy banks. It is strange to look down from these at half-tide, and see a large vessel coming up or down a stream too narrow for her to turn in, while, far above her topmast, from the S. Vincent's Rocks at Clifton, the most aerial of suspension bridges has of late years been flung across, carrying out the long-deferred plan of Brunel. The trade of the place has always been connected with the West Indies and the North American colonies. This has now produced its natural effects of civilisation and improvement; but the case was very different when the West Indies were cultivated by slaves, and Vir-

ginia partly by transported criminals; and when the wealth thus generated in Bristol produced on the one hand an upper class peculiarly haughty and unsympathetic,\* and on the other a mob exceptionally rough and violent, as the 'Reform' riots of 1831, which laid much of the city in ashes, and many others, proved unmistakably.

Among the chief tributaries of the Severn is the lovely Wye, rising also on Plinlimmon; upon it stand **HEREFORD**, **ROSS**, **MONMOUTH**, and **CHEPSTOW**. The last miles of its course, before it reaches the Bristol Channel, are a series of the most admirable turns and windings round steep rocky hills. On the Teme is **LUDLOW**, with its noble castle, where *Comus* was first performed. At Tewkesbury the Severn receives the Warwickshire Avon, which rises near Naseby, where Charles I. was finally overthrown, in 1645, by the 'New Model' army, and then passes by Rugby, by the walls of Warwick Castle, and by Shakespeare's Stratford. Lower down it makes a loop, at the bottom of which are the town and bridge of **EVESHAM**. The destruction of the bridge by Simon de Montfort in 1264 made it impossible for him to avoid Prince Edward's army, when it was seen advancing up the neck of the loop, and thus led to his destruction. Near Tewkesbury are **CHELTENHAM** (42,000) on the one side, and **MALVERN** (6,000) on the other; the

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\* Mr. Bancroft tells us that in the 17th century the Bristol authorities used to make large profits by selling criminals as slaves to Virginia, inducing them to consent by threatening them with death.

greater part of these, as well as of LEAMINGTON (21,000), two miles from Warwick, is a sanitarium of recent growth. Most of the remaining Midland towns, on the Trent and elsewhere, belong to the section of this chapter which deals with manufactures; CHESTER (38,000), on the Dee, is, however, a living monument of the time when the English and Welsh were enemies. Not only do its walls remain entire, but the two principal streets are still fortress-like by means of the 'Rows,' a kind of gangway conducted along their sides above the ground-floor of the houses; so that there was no access to them from the roadway beneath. To the north-west of the city, between the Mersey and Dee, is the peninsula locally called the Wirral, the piratical population of which was in the 15th century a terror to the shipping of the Dee. As late as 1585 sixteen persons were executed at once for this crime.

We now come to the northern counties of LANCA-SHIRE, YORKSHIRE, WESTMORELAND, CUMBERLAND, DURHAM, and NORTHUMBERLAND. The county towns of these are LANCASTER, APPLEBY, YORK, CARLISLE, DURHAM, and NEWCASTLE respectively. Lancaster, York, and Durham, however, have been far outstripped by other towns of later growth. YORK (51,000), the old metropolis of the North, is on the Ouse; below it is the great estuary of the Humber, which receives from Yorkshire the waters of the Swale, Ure, Nidd, Wharfe, Aire, Calder, Don, and Derwent; and from Lincolnshire the Trent and all its tributary waters. The twice-burned York Minster has little of

the old work to show, yet its majesty has not been destroyed by restoration; a great part of the city walls still remains. HULL (115,000), on the Humber, has always been an emporium for Baltic imports, such as timber, hides, tallow, hemp. Omitting for the present the great Yorkshire cloth district, we have to notice the small towns of HARROGATE, BOROUGHBIDGE, RICHMOND, THIRSK, BRIDLINGTON, and BEVERLEY. WHITBY, on the Eske, outside of the great Yorkshire basin, is venerable for its age and beauty. It has, or rather had, some trade in alum—the shale containing which was excavated from the lias cliffs north-west—in ironstone dug out along with it, and in jet picked up on the beach; ornaments cut from rhinoceros' skin are, however, somewhat superseding the latter material. SCARBOROUGH (24,000), an old town immensely extended, boasts of being the 'queen of watering-places.' Beyond the Tees is the county of DURHAM; near its mouth are STOCKTON and MIDDLESBOROUGH, important respectively for the coal and iron trade. The latter, which now contains 39,000 inhabitants, had fifty years ago literally only one house upon its site, and has been entirely created by the foresight and energy of a single great firm. On a loop of the Wear is DURHAM, where river, castle, and cathedral make up a scene of the most striking beauty. The castle is now assigned as rooms to the students of Durham University. The town, though small (14,000), has a certain trade in carpets. Beyond Durham is NORTHUMBERLAND, with the coal metropolis of NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, and the smaller

TOWNS of MORPETH and ALNWICK. BERWICK-UPON-TWEED was Scottish till its conquest by Edward I., and is not considered to be in any English county. It also retains some peculiarities derived from the Scottish law.

\* \* Till 1836 Durham was a County Palatine, under the Bishop; that is, writs ran in his name, he granted pardon for offences, appointed judges and justices, and offences were said to be against his peace, not the Queen's. In the other palatine counties of Lancashire and Cheshire, similar powers were exercised by the Duke of Lancaster and the Earl of Chester respectively. Cheshire afforded, according to Hallam,\* a remarkable instance to show how the system worked in early times; inasmuch as the inhabitants, "upon the strength of their immunity from the king's courts, used to break into the neighbouring counties in armed bands, and commit all the crimes in their power."

CUMBERLAND and WESTMORELAND, though a land of waters, have few considerable rivers, the largest being the Eden, on which stands CARLISLE, formerly the "bridle of the Scottish Border." Other places in Cumberland are PENRITH, WHITEHAVEN, MARYPORT, WORKINGTON, S. BEES, COCKERMOUTH, and KESWICK; and in Westmoreland APPELBY, KENDAL, AMBLESIDE, and GRASMERE. The centre of the exquisite Lake District of England lies on the border of the two counties, Windermere, Derwentwater, and Ullswater diverging from it in three directions, the two former separated by the Scafell range, and the Windermere and Ullswater valleys by Helvellyn and its continuation. The largest of these lakes, Winder-

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\* *Middle Ages*, part iii. c. 8.



mere, is ten and a half miles long and about one mile broad. All of them have beauty much beyond their size, from the grandeur of the primitive and volcanic rocks surrounding the head of each, which rise in Scafell to the height of 3,166 feet, and to little less in Helvellyn and Skiddaw. The country round them is occupied by a pastoral population, many of whom, even now, own the small farms on which they live—the ‘statesmen’ whom Wordsworth has made so famous.

LANCASHIRE is intersected first by the Lune, on which LANCASTER stands, then by the Ribble at PRESTON; finally the Mersey separates it from Cheshire, forming near its mouth a lake-like expanse, which narrows and deepens to form the great port of LIVERPOOL. This till 1709 was a small town frequented by none but coasting vessels, all the foreign trade of the north-west of England going by the Dee to Chester. In that year a single vessel was despatched to Africa for a cargo of slaves; and this trade, which was not then considered discreditable, remained the staple of the town till the last century. In 1779, the American War having damaged its commerce, it appears to have had no less than 120 privateers at sea. Its great growth began when to its West Indian trade it added the importation of cotton for the manufacturing districts. It has now a population of 493,000; its docks afford 18 miles of space along their quays, and 50 ships a day, on an average, enter its port. There is, however, some difficulty in keeping open the two narrow channels which admit vessels across the bar; should these be silted up, it

would be necessary to cut one or more ship canals to the open sea.

West of the southern and midland counties are the outlying districts of the Devonian peninsula and Wales.

The Devonian peninsula contains DEVONSHIRE, CORNWALL, and part of SOMERSET. In Devonshire it widens to a breadth of 90 miles, and in Cornwall tapers to a point in the granite rocks of the Land's End; its centre being the granitic mass of Dartmoor, with its numberless 'tors,' marshes, and streams. West of the great headland ending in Start Point is the great harbour and arsenal of PLYMOUTH and DEVONPORT (140,000), on the peculiarly deep waters of the Tamar. The Sound was dangerous with certain winds until closed in by the Breakwater, a triumph of Rennie's engineering skill. Not less ability was shown by Smeaton in constructing, after former enterprises had twice failed, a permanent lighthouse on the Eddystone Rock, which endangered the entrance. TORQUAY, which was fifty years ago a mere fishing village, has now a population of 26,300, and from the great mildness of its climate is much frequented in winter. EXETER, the chief town of Devon, is 10 miles up the Exe; a ship canal, however, brings vessels up to it.\* The way from thence to Bristol lies through the beautiful Vale of TAUNTON, leaving Exmoor on the left, and the Mendip mining district, with the city of Wells, to the

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\* This canal, the first of the kind ever made in England, dates from 1673—the occasion for it being a quarrel between the citizens and a neighbouring lady of rank, which induced her to construct the 'Countess Weir,' on the Exe, thus stopping the navigation of that river.

right. In North Devon are ILFRACOMBE and LYNTON, loveliest of watering-places, and BIDEFORD, once so celebrated for semi-piratical enterprise against Spain. In South Cornwall we have the ports of FALMOUTH, PENRYN, PENZANCE, and FOWEY ; the north side has only S. IVES, PADSTOW, and BUDE. LAUNCESTON, BODMIN, and TRURO lie along the central ridge. A characteristic feature of the south coast, in the neighbourhood of the Lizard, is the way in which the sea forms caverns called 'hugoes,' the roof of which at last falls in for want of support, so that a small bay is formed, into which the tide pours with the utmost violence. The chief employments of the people, besides the mining to be presently spoken of, are the pilchard fisheries and the cultivation in West Cornwall of early vegetables for the London market.

The dimensions and population of Wales have been stated at the beginning of this chapter. The six counties of ANGLESEY, CARNARVON, DENBIGH, FLINT, MERIONETH, and MONTGOMERY are in North Wales ; those of CARMARTHEN, PEMBROKE, CARDIGAN, GLAMORGAN, BRECKNOCK, and RADNOR in South Wales. The north and central districts are almost entirely mountainous, the chief heights being irregular and broken, yet capable of being classed, for the sake of distinctness, as belonging to the Snowdonian, Berwyn, and Plinlimmon ranges. The first of these runs through the length of Carnarvonshire in a north-east direction, and contains the fine Carnedd ap Dafyd (3,427), Carnedd Llewellyn (3,469), and above all Snowdon, called by the Welsh 'Eryri' (3,571),

whose grandeur is to be measured, not by its height, but by the singular abruptness of its great flanks, the way in which they have been fretted into huge precipitous 'cwms,' the singularly curved and narrowed ridge of its summit, called the 'Wyddfa,' and the manifold signs of glacier action which have been traced on all its sides by Professor Ramsay. In nearly a parallel direction the Berwyns, considered as including the noble Cader Idris (3,100), may be traced from Cardigan Bay to Llangollen, and the Plinlimmon (2,460) range from near Aberystwyth to the Breadon and Wenlock Edge in Shropshire.

This arrangement of the mountains governs that of the rivers. From BARMOUTH, on the west coast, a long valley opens between Cader Idris and the last outliers of Snowdonia. Tracing the river Mawddach upwards along this, we come to the charming town of DOLGELLY (3,000), near which small quantities of gold have lately been found.\* Crossing the head of the valley, we reach the lake and town of BALA, just above which the Dee rises, and its course, by CORWEN, the beautiful LLANGOLLEN, and the coal and iron district of RHIWABON, forms the central line of communication for North Wales. Below Chester, on the Dee estuary, are the industrious districts of Flint and Holywell. The former of them has now become the seaport for Chester, as vessels of any size cannot come up to the latter. North of the upper,

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\* Immense enthusiasm was excited by the discovery near Dolgelly, in 1860, of a 'pocket' of gold worth £36,000. But no such 'finds' have been made since then.

and west of the lower Dee, we have a country of low mountains, with a considerable strip of fertile land between them and the coast, and penetrated by several large and fertile valleys, with rivers flowing from south to north. Such is that of the Clwyd, leading up to S. ASAPH, DENBIGH, and the celebrated border castle of RUTHYN; and, farther west, that of the Conway, containing the small towns of LLANRWST and BETTWS-Y-COED. At its mouth is Conway Castle, built by Edward I. to guard at once the Conway valley and the pass of PENMAENMAWR, two miles farther on, which were then, as now, the chief western approaches to Snowdonia. In the Conway (properly spelt Conwy) are still found the pearl mussels, the collection of which was, according to Suetonius, one of Cæsar's chief inducements to invade Britain; those of the present day are, however, of small value. The last of the northern valleys are that of Nantfrancon, from Bangor to Capel Ceryg and Snowdon, and that of Llanberis, which is entered from CARNARVON. This town (10,000) is considered the capital of North Wales; its castle is called by a Welsh antiquary "the most magnificent badge of our subjection." Erected in the reigns of Edward I. and Edward II., it affords in its chief tower, once sculptured with eagles, one of the finest specimens extant of such architecture. On the same coast is the Great Orme's Head, a huge mass of rock just joined to the mainland by an isthmus, and partly occupied by the recently-built LLANDUDNO; just west of this is the town of PENMAENMAWR, with its huge stone quarries,

which have seriously diminished the sea-face of the mountain so-called; and, on the Menai Strait, the venerable BANGOR (10,000) from time immemorial an episcopal see, and famous as a home of the great poet Taliesin; yet to us more celebrated for its magnificent suspension bridge, the work of Telford in 1826, and the still more admirable tubular bridge, devised by Robert Stephenson in 1849, in order to carry the Holyhead line across the strait above the masts of the tallest ships.

Beyond the strait is ANGLESEY, called by the Welsh "Môn Mam Gymrw" (Mona, the mother of Wales). It was celebrated of old as the focus of the Druidical and Bardic system, and for having been taken, after desperate resistance, first by Paulinus, then by Agricola. According to Mr. Borrow, the spirit of Welsh poetry is strong there even at the present day. Its capital is the small town of BEAUMARIS (2,300); but this has been outstripped in importance by AMLWCH (3,000), since the remarkable discovery of copper made there in 1769, and still more by HOLYHEAD (7,200), on a small dependent island, from which the splendid mail-boats start for Dublin. The rocks near the harbour, on which the 'South Stack' lighthouse stands, are celebrated for their singular contortion, and for the immense flocks of sea-birds which haunt them; even the rare peregrine falcon builds among the highest crags.

About 10 miles south of Barmouth is the mouth of the Dovey (in Welsh, Dyfi), with an estuary separating Merioneth from Cardigan. This river

leads to the Severn, as the Mawddach does to the Dee. Along the Severn, therefore, the third great road from Wales to England is carried, communicating by way of LLANIDLOES, MONTGOMERY, and WELSHPOOL with Shrewsbury, which thus, with Chester, commands all the three lines of North Wales communication. At ABERYSTWYTH begins the west trend of Cardigan Bay. At its extremity is S. David's Head, with the ancient city of the same name, one of the earliest homes of Christianity in our islands, as it was an episcopal seat in the fifth century. Beyond this is the vast haven of MILFORD (3,200), till 1811 the regular port for embarkation to Ireland. The transference of the mails to Holyhead then caused Milford to decay; but the completion of the South Wales Railway has led to the establishment there of steam vessels to several Irish ports, and even to Brazil. South of Milford is the government dockyard of PEMBROKE (15,000). Its castle was besieged by Cromwell in person in 1648. On the east side of Carmarthen Bay is the great industrial district of Glamorganshire, with its coal-field, to be presently described. It contains the towns of MERTHYR TYDFIL (148,000), and ABERDARE (2,000), with the seaports of SWANSEA (81,000), on the Tavy (Welsh, Teifi), CARDIFF (60,000), on the Taff. Swansea was originally founded by Flemish immigrants in Henry I.'s reign. It smelts not only the iron of the surrounding district, and the copper from Cornwall, but large supplies of ore from Elba, and even from South America. Cardiff is entirely occupied in embarking

the produce of Merthyr and the surrounding districts, and suffers much from any pressure on the South Wales iron trade. It owes its importance to the enterprise of the late Marquis of Bute, who is said to have staked the whole of his property on the success of his new docks there, as the Duke of Bridgwater did on his canal.

\*.\* The character of the purely Welsh population is one which has yet to be fully written. In the less-known parts Welsh is sometimes the exclusive language of the working classes. It is not agreeable or easy to foreigners, as it has lost its own alphabet, and therefore has to spell its words in an uncouth way by means of the English letters; besides which peculiar notions of euphony have gradually introduced into it a system of consonant change which seldom leaves the first letters of a word unaltered. Near the English border, and on the great roads, the people are mostly bilingual; but Welsh remains their language for all natural and free thought. The Saxon virtues of punctuality and stirring energy are alien to their nature, which is inclined to sentiment, and strongly imaginative within somewhat narrow limits. Their religion, often Nonconformist, is a singular mixture of metaphysical subtlety with passion; and the strangest superstitions are said still to linger in remote places. Their feeling towards Englishmen is that of a nation 'unequally yoked' to another, which overpowers them by its restless activity. Hence a perpetual jealousy against immigrants, who may raise the price of farms, and a particular unwillingness among the rural classes that their language should be understood by such persons. Hence also a constant dwelling on their two great eras of patriotism and poetry—that of Arthur and his bard Taliesin, who fought the Romans, and that of Llewellyn and Owain Glyndwyr, who resisted the English conquerors; and an enthusiastic remembrance of the localities connected with their great contests. In spite of all



jealousies, however, the Welsh are a people very sensible of good treatment. Burke has compared the effect upon them of the first gift of English liberty to the sudden drop of the tempest when the Twins appear in the sky; and there is no reason to believe that later instalments of justice, such as the appointment of Welsh-speaking clergy and county-court judges, will fail to have like effect, by weakening jealousies and abolishing all that ought to perish of Welsh peculiarities.

Having thus gone over the geography of England and Wales, we are enabled to gain an idea of the occupations, apart from agriculture, pursued by the people in different parts. A description of these will naturally fall under the two heads of mining and manufactures. Mining operations are mostly carried on among the primary rocks, or in the coal measures; manufactures are widely spread over the country west of the line indicated at the beginning of this chapter.

A geological map of Cornwall shows the existence, all along the central spine and at other points, of large masses of granite. It is on the edge of these that the metals are most found; as, for instance, in the ancient tin mine of CARCLAZE, near S. Austell, which covers a space of five acres, at a depth of about twenty-two fathoms, but is now worked only for china clay. The number of tin mines is not less than 120; besides which there are many copper and some lead mines. The produce of the former was worth £1,000,000 a year; that of the copper mines not less than £1,250,000; but the latter has now become a mere fraction of its former amount, from so many of the mines being closed through foreign competition.

Some mines, such as that of Botallack near Penzance, run for a considerable distance under the sea. The copper ores are sent to Swansea for smelting; as the freight is less than that of coals to Cornwall would be.

\*.\* The tin-mining of Cornwall is of extreme antiquity; from it the British Isles were called the Cassiterides. S. Michael's Mount, off Marazion, was a place of much resort for the ancient Phœnicians. Some German miners were brought over under Queen Elizabeth, and these much improved the processes; yet even to the end of the last century much valuable ore was thrown away. The employment, however, fosters intelligence in those engaged in it; partly from their being a good deal paid by percentages, and partly from the vigilance required to follow indications of a profitable "country." The export of tin, which amounted in 1875 to £476,000, has declined so much as to force many of the miners to emigrate, and risk the very existence of this most ancient industry.

Lead is much diffused over England. The largest supplies of this metal are in Durham, Yorkshire, and Derbyshire; a small quantity of silver is often found with it. The iron districts are most extensive and important, as this metal is found under almost all strata. The earliest works we know of were in the FOREST OF DEAN (between the lower Severn and Wye), and, as already stated, at various points in Kent. The latter have long ceased with the exhaustion of the forests which supplied them with fuel; the former still continue, the imperfectly smelted ores of the Romans being often worked over again under the powerful solvent of the 'hot blast,' which has been in use since 1824. More important by far is the Lowmoor district, near HALIFAX, that of Stafford-

shire, round WEDNESBURY and WOLVERHAMPTON, that of North Wales about RHIWABON, and that in South Wales, of which MERTHYR TYDFIL, TREDEGAR, ABERDARE, and DOWLAIS, are the centres. A new district of great value has recently been added, among the Cleveland hills in Yorkshire, of which MIDDLESBOROUGH is the depôt; and smaller quantities are found in the Northampton sands, accounting for the appearance of furnaces close to the London and North-Western Railway in that county.

\*.\* The towns chiefly employed in the manufacture of iron are Birmingham and Sheffield; the former for fire-arms, with brass and plated goods, and an immensity of smaller articles made of various metals. The Soho works near it were the first ever established for the construction of steam-engines, and still maintain their high character. Nails are made at Walsall, and locks at Wednesbury. The staple trade of Sheffield is the manufacture of cutlery and plated goods, both of the superior kind; together with files, railway carriage springs, and the iron work of saddles. The Sheffield 'thwytel' is mentioned even by Chaucer; and in 1624 a corporation was appointed there "for the good order and government of the makers of knives, scissors, shears, sickles, and other cutlery wares;" one of its chief objects being to punish the use of false trade marks. Heavy castings for bridges, &c., are made on a large scale at Coalbrookdale, on the Severn, below Shrewsbury; rails at Lowmoor, in South Wales, and at other places; locomotives and machinery at Newcastle, Leeds, Manchester, and elsewhere. Iron plates for ship-building are rolled in Yorkshire and Staffordshire, and put together on the Thames, Mersey, and Clyde. Cannon, shells, and the like, are cast in the Government arsenals at Woolwich, besides at Lowmoor and other places. The value of iron articles exported from England is not less than £25,000,000 per annum.

We now come to the coal-fields of England, the chief factor of the national wealth. These are, according to Professor Ramsay, the remnants of a deposit which once overspread much of the country, but has been carried off by denudation, except where it had settled down into hollows capable of retaining it. They may be classed as the Northern, Midland, and Southern fields. Of these the first, in its various sections, occupies much of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Durham. In its best parts there are sixteen beds or layers, varying in thickness from 1.5 to 6 feet ; and, as coal consists entirely of fossilized plants, it follows that each bed must represent a long period of vegetation, and the interval below it the accumulated soil on which the trees and plants grew. The chief points of embarkation for the northern coals are NEWCASTLE, SHIELDS, HARTLEPOOL, STOCKTON, and WHITEHAVEN. The Midland coalfield occupies a large circular district, about 100 miles across each way, the centre of which is near CHEADLE, in Staffordshire. As it is interrupted by the Pennine, and also by the Derbyshire Peak and its south-west and south-east branches, it is necessary to distinguish its various sections. On the circumference we have the fields of Lancashire, Yorkshire, Nottingham, Leicestershire, Warwickshire, South Staffordshire, Shropshire, Denbighshire, Flintshire, and Cheshire ; within it the only separate field is the central one of North Staffordshire, close to which are BURSLEM and STOKE. The southern coalfield includes the South Wales, Forest of Dean, and Mendip sections.

It is the second of these great divisions which has had the decisive influence in shaping the destiny of England, as in each section the natural and immemorial manufactures spread widely of themselves, as soon as the coal there was utilised for steam-engines to carry it on. Thus Lancashire had been always a country of hand-loom and spinning-wheels—first for flax, and afterwards for cotton; and the earliest improvements in machinery led to the construction of spinning-mills moved by water, of which Defoe saw thirty on the Irwell, near MANCHESTER. The effect which the spinning-jenny and power-loom would produce on such a community can be easily imagined, especially when steam navigation and railroads began to supply the raw material in almost unlimited abundance. Manchester has now a population of 380,000, and the neighbouring towns of OLDHAM, ASHTON, STALEYBRIDGE, BURY, WIGAN, BOLTON, STOCKPORT, and MACCLESFIELD a total of 418,000, principally occupied in the cotton manufacture. Exactly the same process gave the great spur to the cloth trade, whether in LEEDS, BRADFORD, HALIFAX, and HUDDESFIELD, with their dependent towns, or in TROWBRIDGE and the Wiltshire BRADFORD, with WESTBURY and the other places forming the western cloth district. These places had always had near them the great supply of wool, either from the hill and mountain region of England, or from Wales. They had, therefore, brought their processes to the point at which they could readily welcome all the great mechanical improvements of the last century. So in

the districts round **STOKE** and **BURSLEM**, on the North Staffordshire coal-field, there was an immemorial trade in pottery; but, unlike the trades just mentioned this seemed to have little spirit of improvement in it up to 1763, in which year the celebrated Wedgwood produced at Etruria, near Burslem, what was called the 'Queen's ware.' This became, within the next twenty-five years, so popular as to be used in France, Holland, Sweden, Russia, Spain, Portugal, and over much of America; yet it was only the beginning of Wedgwood's achievements. It is impossible here to speak at length of the chemical works of **NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE**, the salt pits of Cheshire and Worcestershire, the glass works of **S. HELEN'S** and **BIRMINGHAM**, the silk mills of **DERBY** and other places, or the noble addition made in late years to the resources of the country by the alpaca manufacture at **SALTAIRE** and in **Wharfdale**.

- For, after all, an interest far above that of any manufacture, however important, attaches to the general question, 'Cui bono?' What does all this infinity of wealth do for our real worth and happiness as a nation? If this question had been asked even fifty years ago, the answer would have been hesitating; for population had then just multiplied enormously, with little or no provision made beforehand for its requirements. The price of food had risen in even greater proportion; and this always weighed heavily on the low agricultural wages, while it drove the masses in towns almost to despair during the frequent interruptions of work. A deep distrust of the law, and much hatred of their employers, pervaded their minds, as will be seen by those who read Sir C. Napier's journals during his command of the northern district in 1839. Thus the squalid unloveliness of Manchester or Leeds, and the limbs of the workman,

stunted and often deformed by excess of labour in his childhood, were too true types of the inward condition of these communities. The Ten Hours' Bill has put an end to the latter of these two evils, and People's Parks have done something to remedy the former; but as there is no reason in the nature of things why Manchester should not be as clear and bright as Rheims or Amiens, and its population as educated as that of Elberfeld or Lowell, it is plain that much has still to be accomplished. It is pleasant to see that well-built suburbs have taken the place of crowded alleys and cellars; that mill-children do excellent work in school as 'half-timers;' that money is saved largely; and that the law is now recognized by the people as equal for all men. But it is impossible to be satisfied while the number of deaths in the great towns is many times what it ought to be; while many workmen look forward to 'the rates' as their natural support in old age; while whole districts, like that of Batley in Yorkshire, are maintained by the manufacture of 'shoddy;' while Coventry makes any watches which will only sell in China; and while any foreigners dissuade one another from buying English goods on the ground that a few francs are ill saved on an article which will not last. Finally, it is impossible to be satisfied as long as the consumption of intoxicating liquors is so extravagant that, if all the cotton and all the woollens which we send to foreign nations were shipwrecked by the way for a whole year, while for the same time we did without beer, wine, and spirits, the balance would be not less than £45,000,000 in our favour on the 31st of December.

A few words must be said, in conclusion, about the City of LONDON, the gigantic heart of the country, which has now reached the unparalleled number of 4,000,000 inhabitants, employed in almost every occupation which is found anywhere in the country.

- \*.\* London and Westminster, with Southwark and Lambeth, cover 45,000 acres of ground on both sides of the Thames, which by its *embouchure* facing the Continent has always determined the position of the English capital. The embankment of the river and the nobleness of the principal public buildings have made London, in some respects, the grandest city in Europe. Its nucleus is the City of London proper, which has a municipal government, under the Lord Mayor and Aldermen; all attempts to provide one for the whole have hitherto failed. Enterprises for the good of its population of 4,000,000 are made difficult by the ever-increasing number of those who have to be provided for. The School Board has, however, for seven years past, addressed itself with real energy and success to the task of education, while a number of other agencies have been employed to hinder for the future the growth of an outcast population. Many sanitary measures have been adopted, such as the improvement of the water supply and of drainage. Thousands of houses have been purchased, put in thorough order, and then let at fair rents, while the short railways have afforded workmen the means of living, without increased expense, in the purer air of the suburbs. Yet, even so, such details as those given in Mr. Henry Mayhew's *London Labour and the London Poor*, and in subsequent works on the same subject, are calculated to inspire great anxiety, especially as there is reason to believe that many of the evils there described have hitherto been beyond the range of philanthropic effort. Certain it is that the one chance of remedying any of them is by trying, not merely to combat the outward misery in detail, but to rouse the people to the degree of self-respect which begets exertion for their own welfare. It takes the ideal, as the poet has said, to blow aside the dust of the actual; those alone are capable of higher living who have become capable of higher thinking.



## CHAPTER III.

### SCOTLAND AND IRELAND.

SCOTLAND is bounded by the sea on every side except the short Border line, 70 miles across, from the Solway to the Tweed. Its length is 280 miles, its breadth 140; but, like Greece, it is so deeply indented by arms of the sea, that no point in it is more than 40 miles from the coast: from Dumbarton on the Clyde to Alloa on the Firth of Forth is only 32 miles. A second indentation occurs farther north, at the deep valley of Strathmore, running from Fort William to Inverness, where the Caledonian Canal spares ships the dangerous navigation by the Pentland Frith. The area of the country (including the islands) is 30,238 square miles, the population 3,360,018, a ratio the smallness of which is accounted for by the fact that hardly a third of the land in it is capable of cultivation.

\* \* \* Scotland, as a separate kingdom, was, till late in the sixteenth century, often in alliance with France against England, the unhappy death of the young Queen Margaret, in 1275, having destroyed the bright prospect of peaceful union under Edward I. In 1602 we accepted a king from her in the person of James I.; but the kingdom still remained separate. Inasmuch, however, as in the year 1705 various jealousies disposed the Scots to elect to the throne of their country a successor other than the Elector of Han-

over, the Act of Union between the countries was at once pressed on by the English Parliament. In this it was provided that the same sovereign shall always reign over both kingdoms, that the House of Commons should receive 45 Scottish members, and the House of Lords 16 representative Peers of Scotland. It was little foreseen at that time that within fifty years the energy of Scottish thought would revolutionize England, as was the case when Hutton founded English geology, Adam Smith the science of political economy, Cullen and Black that of heat, and, above all, when, as a corollary to Black's researches, Watt invented the steam-engine; all in the second half of the last century.

The mountains of Scotland are, first, the pastoral CHEVIOTS, from the Solway to the mouth of the Tweed, and the LOWTHER, MOORFOOT, and LAMMERMUIR range from Wigtonshire to Dunbar; along these lie the chief agricultural districts of the Lowlands. In the north, parallel, except at the west end, with Strathmore, are the GRAMPIANS, in which chain is BEN NEVIS (4,406), the highest mountain in our islands; others of the range are Ben Mac Dhu and Ben Cruachan, which are hardly inferior. It will be observed that all these ranges have the north-east and south-west direction, which the Welsh and English heights also follow. In the south of Perthshire there is also a mountainous district running in the same direction from Ben Lomond, and ending on the east in the Ochil and Sidlaw hills, on each side of the Frith of Tay. This arrangement governs the course of the chief rivers, which are either parallel to it, as the Findhorn, Spey, Dee, and Tweed, or in cross valleys, as the upper Forth and Clyde.

The Tweed border district, once so turbulent, now quietly makes 'tweeds' at HAWICK, JEDBURGH, and

other places in the county of Roxburgh; there are also important salmon fisheries in this as in most Scottish rivers. The counties of DUMFRIES, WIGTOWN, KIRKCUDBRIGHT, and the eastern counties of PEEBLES, SELKIRK, BERWICK, with the LOTHIANS (also called LINLITHGOW, EDINBURGH, and HADDINGTON), are all agricultural, though the three last also contain coal; all have chief towns of the same name. Along the coast, from Berwick-upon-Tweed to Edinburgh, and thence on by Stirling and Perth to Inverness, is the great trunk road of the country.

\*.\* It is interesting to see how much of the history of Scotland is connected with this road. At Dunbar, where the Lammermuir hills come down to the sea, Cromwell turned utter defeat into victory in 1650. Beyond it is the Bass Rock, the prison of so many Covenanters, which was the last place in Scotland held for James II., and surrendered only in 1694. At Prestonpans, near Edinburgh, Charles Edward overthrew Cope in 1745. Just beyond Linlithgow is Falkirk, where Edward I. gained, in 1298, the triumph which laid Scotland at his feet. Close to Stirling and the bridge over the Forth is Bannockburn. Advancing from Stirling northward we have Dumblane and the Sheriffmuir, where Argyle fought Mar in 1715; Auchterarder, whose parochial dispute produced the Free Kirk in 1835; Dunkeld, where Gawain Douglas was bishop in 1519, and where he translated Virgil; where also Mackay and his Cameronians in 1689 drove back Dundee's Highlanders, and made useless their recent victory of Killiecrankie in the pass a few miles on. Near the "blasted heath" of Forres road and railway turn the Grampians; then comes Culloden Moor, the scene of Charles Edward's ruin; and finally, Inverness, which, with Fort William and the castles of Stirling and Dumbarton, successfully carried out, after 1745, the task of bridling the Highlanders, yet could not have done so but for Chatham's generous trust in the conquered race.

EDINBURGH, the capital, is nobly situated on the lowest of three great hills of granite; this is crowned by the Castle, whence the High Street leads down to Holyrood. The New Town runs parallel with this, at the other side of the 'North Loch,' which has been drained and turned into gardens. Holyrood has the scene, perhaps even the marks, of Rizzio's murder to show. Its chapel remains in the ruined state to which the popular hatred for the religion of James II. reduced it in 1688; the last royal inhabitant of the palace was the dethroned Charles X. of France. The upper classes have now withdrawn from much of the Old Town, leaving to utter degradation the old aristocratic mansions in the High Street and its wynds. The great University of Edinburgh shared with that of Glasgow the honour of training the great thinkers above-mentioned, and, in succession to them, produced Mackintosh, Sydney Smith, Brougham, Horner, and other eminent politicians. In our own time one of its members, Sir James Simpson, has honoured it by his great discovery of chloroform as an anodyne during surgical operations.

The counties on the west coast above Wigtown are some of the most important in Scotland. One of these is RENFREW, of which the chief town is PAISLEY, which since the Union has shown the utmost aptitude in varying its work according to the fancy of the times, having successively made striped muslins, sewing thread, sewing cotton, silk gauze, and muslin embroidery. It has now apparently settled down to the manufacture of woollen shawls and similar articles.

Next to it is LANARK (or Clydesdale), which contains GLASGOW, the head of the northern cotton trade, with a population of over 400,000, and GREENOCK, its seaport, just where the Clyde widens into its Firth. In AYRSHIRE, of which the poet Burns was a native, is KILMARNOCK, where Scotch caps, called bonnets, are made, as well as shawls and carpets. All these counties are on the great Scottish coal-field, which extends along the Clyde and Forth up to Fifeshire, and was, according to Professor Ramsay, once continuous, across the intervening strata, with the coal district of North England. Ironstone is found in many parts of it, the principal works being in Clydesdale and on the Carron, at the head of the Firth of Forth, where, till recently, the guns of the navy used to be cast, and from whence 'carronades' obtained their name.

The counties in the peninsula between the Forth and Tay are CLACKMANNAN, KINROSS, and FIFE. In Kinross is LOCH LEVEN, with the castle from which Mary Queen of Scots escaped in 1568; and in Fifeshire is S. ANDREW'S, to which, in conjunction with the other universities, and her old and admirable school system, Scotland owes so much of her advance. West of these, and extending up to the Ochil hills, are the counties of STIRLING and DUMBARTON, which together reach across Scotland from sea to sea, commanding by their castles the upper Forth and Clyde respectively. Above the Tay, in East Scotland, are FORFARSHIRE, KINCARDINE, ABERDEEN, BANFF, ELGIN, and NAIRN, with chief towns of the same name, except that the largest in Forfarshire (also

called Angus) are MONTROSE and DUNDEE, and the largest in Kincardine STONEHAVEN; Dundee, at the mouth of the Tay, being the centre of the Scottish linen districts. In Aberdeenshire is also PETERHEAD, to which London seems finally to have resigned the whaling trade, and BRAEMAR, on the Upper Dee, near which is the Queen's favourite residence of BALMORAL.

The rest of Scotland, and indeed the mountainous parts of the counties last mentioned, is occupied by the Highlands, and by a Gaelic-speaking population far more alien, till recent times, to the English-born Lowlanders than even to England itself;\* since being shut up, like the Montenegrins of the present day, in a country too barren to support them, they almost unavoidably preyed upon their neighbours, and opposed by all the means in their power, and notably by the Jacobite insurrections of 1715 and 1745, the rise of order and legality.

\*.\* Much of the halo of romance investing the "patriarchal" rule of the Highland chiefs is dispelled by the realities of history; for instance, by Mr. Burton's account of the cool way in which in the last century they sold the clansmen, not only of other tribes, but of their own, into hopeless servitude in Virginia. As to their religion, nothing is more strange than the way in which, even till 1790, Roman Catholic priests used to live and perform their functions, in

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\* A curious instance of Lowland feeling on this point was the surprise with which the élite of Edinburgh saw that George IV., when landing at Leith in 1822, had adopted the Highland dress by way of compliment to them, being as tranquilly unconscious that it was still considered by them to be the costume of cattle-stealers, as they were that in a few more years the Royal Princes would habitually wear it in Scotland.

defiance of the law, wherever the chief chose to protect them in so doing ; while the almost equally proscribed Episcopal clergyman might be in spiritual charge of the neighbouring glens. One great family, however, that of the Dukes of Argyle, was marked, generation after generation, not only by staunch Presbyterianism, but by a constitutional spirit elsewhere unknown ; accordingly they seem, till Scotland at last came over to their party, to have been regarded as quasi-Lowlanders, to be put down if possible. The pacification of the Highlands was at last effected, partly by the abolition of the chiefs' jurisdictions in 1748, but most of all by the conduct of Lord Chatham, who illustrated Burke's sentiment that "magnanimity in politics is not seldom the truest wisdom" by enrolling in regiments, for the service of the Crown, the same Highlanders who had so recently been in arms against it. How his confidence has been justified there is no need to say.

The HIGHLANDS are most easily understood if we suppose ourselves to enter them by the great central valley leading west from Stirling to Doune and Callender. At the latter place two lines separate ; that on the left leading by the Teith to Loch Achray, the Trossachs, Loch Katrine, and Loch Lomond—the scenery, in fact, of the *Lady of the Lake*—while the other turns northward to Loch Tay and Loch Earn, crossing the Western Grampians at Tyndrum to Dalmally, near Loch Awe, and thence to OBAN ; between Loch Earn and Loch Lomond was the country of Rob Roy and his hardly-used Macgregors. North of Oban on the coast is APPIN, the birthplace of Macaulay, BALLACHULISH, at the west end of Glencoe, which he has painted in such dark colours in his account of the massacre there in 1692, and the entrance to STRATHMORE, near Ben Nevis. South of

Oban the Mull of CANTIRE is cut through at its isthmus by the Crinan Canal, and near the east end of this is the mouth of Loch Fyne, leading up to the tranquil town and splendid woods of INVERARAY. Round Argyleshire are the islands of MULL, ISLAY, JURA, BUTE, and ARRAN—the last a paradise equally to the geologist and to the painter. On the Sound of Mull is TOBERMORIE, where one of the Armada vessels was burnt with all her crew; outside of it is STAFFA, with its famous basaltic cavern, and a little farther south the celebrated IONA, where Columba lived, and where tomb after tomb marks the resting-place of old Scottish kings. Farther west are the rocks of SKERRYVORE, on which Stephenson erected the most perfect of lighthouses—an improvement on the model of the Eddystone—and S. KILDA, a lonely islet with crags 1,300 feet high.

The remaining Highlands contained in the counties of ROSS, SUTHERLAND, and CAITHNESS, require only the briefest notice. Their population has in a great measure emigrated, and the country been thrown into deer forests, in which condition it produces thousands in rent, where before it would have paid only hundreds. The beauty of the western coast is beyond imagination, particularly that of the wild inland county round the heads of Loch Carron and Loch Maree. On the north-east coast, near the Pentland Firth, is WICK, whose herring vessels may be seen during the season plying their trade in every inlet of the coast. SKYE, with its wonderful volcanic chain of the Cuchullins, forms a kind of bridge between the mainland and the



islands of LEWIS and UIST, generally called the Outer Hebrides; its mountains and coast have a mixture of wildness and beauty which, once seen, cannot be forgotten. Near the south end of Skye, on the mainland, are the rugged districts of KNOYDART and MOIDART, where Charles Edward landed in 1745, and from which he ultimately escaped. East of the narrow strait by Kyle-Akin is the entrance to GLENSHIEL, where in 1719 Alberoni's Spaniards, in strange alliance with Charles XII. of Sweden, landed to restore the Stuarts, but were captured in a few days by the vigour of General Wightman. Across the Pentland Firth are the ORKNEYS, the chief town of which is Kirkwall, on the island of Pomona; and beyond them the Shetland group, of which the capital is Lerwick, with a population of 3,000.

IRELAND, the third of the sister kingdoms, has an area of 30,370 square miles, and a population of 5,411,000. Unlike that of England and Scotland, the latter *decreased* in the ten years between 1861 and 1871, at the rate of nearly seven per cent., emigration having removed during this period more than 800,000 of its inhabitants. The geographical features of the country are unlike those of any other in Europe, inasmuch as the mountains, instead of radiating from its centre and running through its length, all lie on the sea-coasts or near them. Thus a chain of high ground, considered by the best authorities to be a continuation through the Hebrides of the Grampian region of Scotland, passes through the maritime counties of Donegal, Mayo, and Galway, to the

Atlantic. Its chief heights are on the west of the island; among them are Muilrea (2,688), near the harbour of Killybegs, the Twelve Bens of Connemara, and Croagh Patrick (2,510), which commands an admirable prospect of Clew Bay and the island of Achill, as well as of the Connemara mountains and the inland plain. A range similar in structure and parallel to this (and therefore perhaps belonging, in spite of its remoteness, to the same formation), is that of the Wicklow Mountains, near the south-east corner of the island. Their highest point is Lugnaquilla (3,039); other peaks, such as the Sugar-loaf Mountain, stand boldly out towards the sea, adding much to the beauty of the group at this point. Farther north we have the Mourn and Carlingford mountains, considered by Mr. Hull to be a line of volcanoes of unknown age which have lost their higher regions; from them a large granite field spreads northward, nearly filling the north-east corner of the country. Lastly, the peninsula at Kerry, in the south-west of Ireland, is almost entirely occupied by a singularly beautiful group of non-volcanic mountains. Their chief height is Carntual (3,414), in the range called the Macgillicuddy Reeks, just beyond Killarney; and from them the Slieve Bloom Mountains run north-east in a direction parallel to the Shannon, and other smaller ranges west and south-west, forming the four great promontories of Kerry.

Thus the centre of Ireland is occupied, not by mountains, but by a singularly level plain, seldom rising, till it reaches the spurs of the mountains

already described, more than 250 feet above the sea-level. It is composed of mountain limestone, and was once covered with carboniferous strata, fragments of which still remain in the small Tyrone coalfield near Dungannon, at Castlecomer in Kilkenny, and at a few other points. Much of the central plain is now covered by a number of bogs, known by the general name of the Bog of Allen, which, however, can be used, even when undrained, by means of high ridging between deep trenches, for the growth of potatoes. The rest of the plain is excellently suited for pasturage, as the Atlantic moisture readily clothes it with grass.

As in England, the largest rivers necessarily rise east of the chief mountain districts; the course of the Shannon from Lough Allen and Carrick to the sea at Limerick being similar in form to that of the Severn below Shrewsbury. The Shannon has, however, more than one advantage over the English river, being navigable for almost its whole course, and also connected with Dublin by the Grand Canal and the Royal Canal, which join it near Banagher and Carrick respectively; nor would it be difficult to complete its navigation through Lough Allen to Sligo Bay, thus bringing it into contact with eleven out of the thirty-two Irish counties. The other rivers, from the great quantity of rain in the country, are very numerous; chief of these are the Lee and Blackwater, at Cork and Youghal respectively; the Barrow, at Waterford, once known as the border of the "English Pale;" the Liffey, at Dublin; the Boyne, near Drogheda;

the Lagan, which forms Belfast Lough; the Foyle, at Londonderry, and the Erne, which runs by Cavan, Enniskillen, and Lough Erne, to Donegal Bay, near Ballyshannon. The lakes of Ireland are numberless. Lough Neagh is the largest piece of fresh water in the British Isles, being 150 square miles in extent. Loughs Mask and Corrib nearly cut off the Galway peninsula from the rest of Ireland; and Loughs Rea and Dearg are expansions of the Shannon. The three lakes of Killarney, though small, are of surpassing beauty, lying, as they do, all at one level, yet offering a wonderful gradation of scenery, from the dream-like softness of the lower lakes, with their arbutus-clad banks and islands, to the wildness and bare grandeur of the 'Black Valley,' in which the upper lake lies. Ireland is also rich in great salt water loughs; such are Lough Foyle and Lough Swilly, on the north, and on the west the long narrow inlet of Killary, and all the great Atlantic bays. As these last are exposed to the whole force of the ocean, the power of the tides in them is enormous. Sea-water may be seen in Connemara running impetuously up steep slopes, and suggesting the idea that its power might at some future time be used instead of that of steam for manufactures.

Ireland is divided into four provinces, those of LEINSTER and ULSTER, which have been largely occupied by English and Scotch colonists respectively, and those of MUNSTER and CONNAUGHT, which are far more purely Irish. In all but Ulster, which is largely Presbyterian, the Roman Catholic religion is

predominant. The Irish language is still much spoken by the peasantry in Munster and Connaught.

LEINSTER includes the counties of WEXFORD, KILKENNY, CARLOW, DUBLIN, LANGFORD, and WICKLOW, all with chief towns of the same name; also KILDARE, with NAAS for its county town; QUEEN'S COUNTY, with MARYBOROUGH; KING'S COUNTY, with PHILIPSTOWN; WESTMEATH, with ATHLONE; MEATH, with NAVAN; and LOUTH, with DROGHEDA. WICKLOW, as already noticed, contains a mountain range of great beauty. In it is GLENDALOUGH, with the characteristic Irish monument of the Seven Churches, and the celebrated valley of the Ovoca. From a brook tributary to this river a quantity of gold, amounting on the whole to about £13,000, was obtained between the years 1796 and 1798. Somewhat north of this is Dublin, on its celebrated bay, a city of 300,000 inhabitants, the seat of the vice-regal government, with an excellent port on the Liffey. North of it, along the coast, is the industrial district of Leinster, largely occupied in making hosiery. In it are BALBRIGGAN and DUNDALK. Two points of this coast need only be named to recall the events which happened there; these are, DROGHEDA and the river BOYNE.

\*.\* Dublin was, on the original conquest of Ireland, vested in the Corporation of Bristol, who did their best to colonize their property. It was afterwards the capital of the Pale, which alone, according to Spenser, "maintained itself in reasonable civility. The rest," he continues, "which dwelt in Connaught and Munster, and some in Leinster and Ulster, are degenerated; yea, and some have shaken off

their English names, and put on Irish, that they may be altogether Irish." Trinity College, Dublin, was refounded in 1593, with the idea of making it a centre of English learning, and Protestant religion. Accordingly Roman Catholics were, till lately, excluded from the benefits of its foundation. The city had the remarkable destiny of being, for the few years between the repeal of Poyning's Act in 1782, and the Union in 1800, the seat of the independent legislature of Ireland. As, however, the parliament had little sympathy either with the English government, or with the native population of Ireland, its quasi-freedom entirely failed to tranquillize the country. The measure of 1800 was a copy of the Union with Scotland, with the important exceptions that Ireland had no separate code of law, and that enactments against the Roman Catholic religion remained in force in spite of it. The English House of Commons received 100 Irish members, and the House of Lords 28 representative peers. On this the Irish parliament ceased to exist, having been induced, like that of Scotland, and in our own time that of Jamaica, to pass a vote for its own annihilation.

ULSTER contains the counties of CAVAN, MONAGHAN, ARMAGH, LONDONDERRY, and DONEGAL, with county towns of the same name; also TYRONE, with DUNGANNON for its chief place; FERMANAGH, with ENNISKILLEN; COUNTY DOWN, with DOWNPATRICK; and ANTRIM, with CARRICKFERGUS and BELFAST. This last town is the centre of the Irish linen trade, first introduced by Strafford as an inadequate compensation for an existing trade in woollen cloth, which he tried to suppress, and which was, in fact, crushed by the English parliament fifty years later. Belfast has a population of 50,000, and exports goods to the amount of £10,000,000 annually. It

is honourably distinguished among manufacturing towns by the rare occurrence of periods of distress, or of the stoppage of business from strikes, and possesses one of the three 'Queen's Colleges,' founded by Sir R. Peel's government for unsectartan education; the other two are at Cork and Galway. On the Foyle, 10 miles from the sea, is LONDON-DERRY, which is still what it was when besieged in 1689, the stronghold of Protestantism in its most combative form.

- Ulster was colonized after the fashion of the time by James I. in 1611. He persisted, against remonstrance, in dispossessing the native Irish from the districts to be settled; they were told that "Irish holdings gave no claim for ownership which English law would recognize." The settlers were partly English, partly Scotch. Many Highlanders came over as immigrants, regarding the shores of Belfast Lough as a paradise of fertility compared with the starving glens of their own country. To English settlers of higher rank the soil was distributed in lots of 1,000 and 2,000 acres, each proprietor undertaking to build a fortified house on his estate, and never to alienate any of it to an Irishman. Living thus, with an ejected nation constantly plotting against them, they soon gained the tension of character which showed itself in the celebrated defence of Londonderry in 1689, and in the contemptuous bravery of the Protestant volunteers of Enniskillen and Newtown Butler, when in the same year they went out to meet Tyrconnell's hordes. Londonderry, a Puritan town, was colonized in 1609 by the Corporation of London, in whom, and in some of the city companies, James had vested the property of nearly the whole county. This strong measure in time changed it to a land of industry; yet the London ownership of the city has lately been complained of as making it difficult to obtain the leases required for its

improvement. As regards Ulster in general, the feud between native and colonist has by no means ceased; a fair-day at Monaghan or an election at Castle Blaney being still a terror to peaceable men, especially as an outrage committed on such occasions is apt to be punished or to escape, according to the county in which it is tried, or the accidental composition of the jury.

The counties of MUNSTER, in which province all that is most characteristic of Ireland may be found, are CORK, LIMERICK, WATERFORD, CLARE, TIPPERARY, and KERRY, the county towns of the three last being ENNIS, CLONMEL, and TRALEE, respectively. The ports on the south coast are WATERFORD, YOUGHAL, and CORK. The last place has a harbour 11 miles long, much used in war time for collecting convoys, and possessing a certain amount of trade with the Mediterranean for wine and fruit. On the Shannon estuary is the port of LIMERICK, the fourth city in Ireland. It has a considerable trade, exporting provisions, and importing manufactured articles for use throughout the country. The manufacture of the celebrated 'Limerick gloves' is now nearly extinct, but that of lace and fine embroidery, in which the Irish showed remarkable skill and taste, has taken its place. That Limerick, Waterford, and other Irish ports do not prosper much more is due to the fact that their exports of provisions go chiefly to pay the rent of land, and are not, as in other food-producing countries, at once balanced by the import of foreign comforts and luxuries. At VALENTIA, near the entrance of Dingle Bay, the first electric cable to America was started. In Bantry Bay the French



revolutionary army under Hoche, in 1797, lay tossing for a fortnight, dreading the fate of the Armada, and hindered by storms from landing the force which would at that time have been irresistible. In the same bay is BEREHAVEN; on the next the settlement of KENMARE, founded by Sir W. Petty, in 1670, in order to cut marble and to smelt Welsh iron with the timber which then grew all around. Its resistance to James II., in 1689, has been celebrated by Froude and Macaulay.

•• It is hard to say whether these great bays of Kerry are more admirable through the aerial and visionary lights of a summer evening, or when all the power of the Atlantic surges into them. What must they have been when clothed with oaks, firs, and arbutus, as the neighbouring Killarney still is? In strong contrast to the beauty of the scenery are the ruined huts, which constantly show how excessive, till recently, was the number of the poorer inhabitants, and tell the tale of the misery so sternly ended by the famine of 1846, most fierce in this district, and in the neighbouring Tipperary.

Lastly, west of the Shannon lies CONNAUGHT, consisting of LEITRIM, GALWAY, MAYO, SLIGO, and ROSCOMMON; Leitrim having CARRICK-ON-SHANNON, and Mayo CASTLEBAR, for their chief towns. GALWAY, a town of 20,000 inhabitants, is well situated for trade with America, and serious attempts were for some time made to establish there a line of packets to the United States. The suburb of the Claddagh is occupied by a peculiar community of fishermen, living under a mayor elected by themselves, whose decisions are so much respected, that appeals from them to the constituted authorities are almost un-

known. When they go to sea, the movements of the boats are also regulated by a leader of their own appointment, one of his functions being to hinder any whisky being taken on board. The country between Galway and Clew Bay is called CONNEMARA. It has only the small towns of CLIFDEN and WESTPORT, but deserves notice not only for the beauty of its great land-locked bays, with their pure coral sands, and for the mountains already mentioned, but for a remarkable contest in beneficence which goes on there ; the Roman Catholics having been put upon their mettle by the exertions of the Protestant 'Irish Society' in the erection of churches, orphanages, and the like.

\*.\* As Cromwell, after his conquest of Ireland, compelled the native Irish to retreat to this inhospitable region, it might be expected that the names of many of its localities would have strong memories attached to them. No Irishman can think without emotion of the ships belonging to the Armada drifting helplessly on the rocks of Sligo, Connemara, and Clare ; nor of the struggle at Athlone, in 1689, where Mackay led his men through the deep Shannon when the bridge was impassable ; nor of Aghrim, a few miles to the west, where the Irish army under S. Ruth was defeated a few days after ; nor of Limerick, just beyond the province, where Sarsfield's capitulation began more than a century of horrors. Finally, on the north coast is Killala, where, in 1798, Humbert, the comrade of Hoche, actually landed, but only to surrender in seventeen days to Lake and Cornwallis ; and far away south, beyond the limits of Connaught, is Ennis ; where, at the great Clare election, in 1828, the tenants for the first time deserted their landlord, and returned O'Connell, Roman Catholic though he was, at the head of the poll ; thus opening a new period of Irish history.

## CHAPTER IV.

### NORTHERN FRANCE.

FRANCE is bounded on the north by Belgium and the English Channel, on the west by the Atlantic, on the south by the Pyrenees and the Gulf of Lyons, and on the east by a line passing from Mentone westward along the Maritime Alps to Cannes, then by the High Alps to the Lake of Geneva, near Thonon; after this round the lake, and by the Jura, to the middle point of the Vosges; and finally by Lunéville, Nancy, Mezières, Givet, and Lille to the sea near Dunkerque. Its area is 207,480 square miles; its population a little over 36,000,000. It has therefore nearly four times the area of England and Wales, but only half as many inhabitants again. Moreover, its population always increases at a slower rate than ours, and appears by the census of 1872 to have positively decreased on the territory remaining after the cessions of 1871.

Its chief mountains are the ALPS and PYRENEES; both have their longer and more productive slope towards France. Along both chains communication with neighbouring countries is difficult, as the French Alps have few passes, and the Pyrenees none except at the extremities. The JURA, which is next to these in height, differs from most mountain-chains, as it

consists, not of a central axis with spurs, but of a number of ranges nearly parallel to one another, with no transverse ridges. These therefore offer little difficulty as regards carriage roads, but are hard to tunnel across, because so many of them have to be pierced. The VOSGES (Vosegus) continue the line of the Jura on the other side of the gap of Belfort, and themselves pass into the mountains of the Palatinate in Germany.

Though much less considerable in height, the central mountain region of France has perhaps had more influence on its history, because of the strong barrier which it has always interposed between the populations of the east and west. This is made up of two parallel chains—the CEVENNES on the east, and the FOREZ on the west. Both might be said to spring from the Pyrenees, but for a deep depression cutting them off, which is called the gap of NAUROUZE, and connects Narbonne and Carcassonne with the Garonne at Toulouse. On the west flank of the Forez lies the wonderful volcanic group of AUVERGNE, the country of the ancient Arverni. After running north as far as Mâcon, with a steep escarpment to the east, the Cevennes in latitude  $47^{\circ}$  breaks into two axes—the MORVAN running slightly north-west, and the CÔTE D'OR to the north-east. The latter is continued by the PLATEAU OF LANGRES and the FAUCILLES to meet the Vosges of Lorraine near Nancy.

It will be seen at once, from this sketch of its mountains, that France must be what Strabo called it, "A country with an admirable arrangement of rivers,

“such as to afford communication in all directions, “with only short portages, and those over ground “nearly level.” Suppose, for instance, that we were standing on the Côte d’Or, where the railway to Marseilles passes Dijon at a height of only 800 feet, and looking north-east. Close on our right we have the upper SAONE (Arar), carrying down by the RHONE into the Mediterranean its own waters, and those of the DOUBS (Dubis). On the left might be seen within a few miles the sources of the SEINE (Sequăna) and MARNE (Matrōna), both bound for the English Channel, and that of the MEUSE (Mosa), which falls into the Rhine estuary. Here is at once the first illustration of Strabo’s remark. But, farther, the LOIRE (Ligeris) and ALLIER (Elaver) rise on opposite sides of the Forez, unite at Nevers, and come round by a bold circular sweep into the Bay of Biscay. From the Saone and Rhone at Lyons to the Loire is barely 40 miles; and the portage between the Loire above Orleans and the Yonne, a great tributary of the Seine, is hardly longer. Besides this, the gap between the Vosges and the Jura at Belfort gives easy communication between the Saone and Rhine valleys; and, above all, the Gap of Naurouze, already mentioned, forms a great international highway between the Mediterranean and the Bay of Biscay, by means of the Aude on the east, and the Garonne and its tributaries on the west.

\*.\* To her possession of this double outlook, north and south, by means of the waters running each way, France owes her character, in which the German element mingles abundantly

with the Latin. From the Côte d'Or or the Cevennes upwards the country is not much unlike England or Germany. Vines occupy little, comparatively speaking, of the soil. Wheat crops wave for miles together, unbroken by fences. The textile manufactures are of cotton or wool. Below this latitude, on the other hand, we have volcanic mountains 6,000 feet high, mountain-streams scoring every slope with deep ravines, gigantic floods in spring and summer.\* The lower country is clothed with maize, vines, olives, and mulberry trees, and the chief manufacture is that of silk. And with this difference the mental characters of the north and south quite correspond. The immoveableness of the Breton, and the calm of the Norman or Flemish population, are as unlike as possible to the Gascon or Provençal temperament, so capable of strong sudden effort, so witty and poetic, so full of resource—in a word, so Italian.† It was in the south of France that the troubadours principally flourished ("like summer insects," as Mr. Hallam says), with their peculiar vein of love-poetry; and that morality was outraged by the 'courts of love' in the fourteenth century. Here also the strange semi-oriental religion of the Albigenses brought havoc on them in the shape of Simon de Montford and his northern crusaders. A striking instance of the want of sympathy of the south for the north is given by Sismondi, who tells us that they hated S. Louis, and called him 'the robber.' It is one of the truest grounds of praise to the French nation that they have not only made such very different races live together in harmony, but have thoroughly welded them into one people, and known how to employ their different capacities for the public good.

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\* M. Reclus has remarked that, if the whole floods of the Cevennes and of the Alps ever came at the same season of the year, they would bring on the Rhone valley a body of water equal to many times that of the Mississippi, and drown everything in it, so that none of the great cities there could ever have existed.

† Hence the ready way in which Italian exiles, like the Arrighetti (whose name is familiar in its French form, 'Riquetti de Mirabeau,') adapted themselves to the Provençal life.

France approaches most nearly to England at Cape Grisnez, nearly opposite Folkestone. This is between CALAIS and BOULOGNE; the former was dear to the English as their last possession in France (and as the depôt of a great smuggling trade), until the Duke of Guise took it from them in 1558. It has now the appearance of a decayed Flemish town; yet its port is active, and it manufactures tulle. BOULOGNE (Gessoriacum) is on the Liane; its port was enormously enlarged by Napoleon, to hold the 3,000 vessels which he had prepared for the invasion of England in 1804: it is now the great place of import for English goods bound to Paris. From S. VALERY, on the Somme, William the Norman sailed to conquer England; a little higher up is ABBEVILLE, and the ford of Blanchetaque, which Edward III. crossed just before Crécy. Close to the north frontier is DUNKERQUE, once so formidable to us that the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 provided for its demolition; since that a focus of smuggling trade with our south coast, till free-trade brought this occupation to an end. On a line running nearly parallel with the coast are the great cities of AMIENS, ARRAS, LILLE, and VALENCIENNES. All are great industrial towns; the three last being close to the large frontier coalfield,\* which extends from near Hazebrouck to Liège in Belgium. They manufacture cambric (so

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\* It should be remarked that the reason why there have been so many schemes of late for finding coal in the Weald of Sussex is because the strata there very closely resemble those of the Valenciennes district.

called from the neighbouring town of CAMBRAY, on the Scheldt), cotton velvet, cloth, and ribands; and LILLE, the chief fortress of the north-east frontier, constructs many locomotives. A few other north-eastern places are celebrated in history, though otherwise unimportant; such as BOUCHAIN, near Cambray, where Marlborough executed in 1711 his feat of passing the 'ne plus ultra' French lines without losing a man; the village of MALPLAQUET, where he gained his too costly victory in 1709; ROCROV, where the great Condé in 1643 began the ruin of Spain by annihilating her infantry; and S. CMER, where so many Irish priests gained their education when the laws hindered their being trained in Ireland itself. The provinces to which these places formerly belonged will be mentioned presently.

South of the districts just described, the first old province on the left is the ILE DE FRANCE, of which PARIS is the capital.

\*.\* This great city is far from being the geometrical centre of France; yet its position is the most practically central which could be chosen in the country. It commands the whole courses of the Seine, Marne, Oise, and Yonne, thus having access to the north, east, and south-east of France, and moreover occupies an excellent point of convergence for the western and eastern sides of the country, which could be held together in early times only by a power which could move with equal ease to the east or west of the great Cevennes barrier. It had also, as above remarked, a means of prompt communication with the Loire. The city was originally built on the island occupied by Notre Dame and the surrounding streets; but now spreads in an oval, six miles long and three broad, along both banks of the Seine.



Much against the will of its inhabitants, Louis Philippe surrounded it by a strong enceinte and a chain of powerful detached forts; their reluctance has been fully justified by the enormous rents which must be paid for houses within the walls, and still more by the terrible sufferings of the citizens during the two sieges of 1870. In the interior of the city, two separate circuits of wide streets called 'boulevards' have been constructed round its centre. These add much to its brilliance, and have also made the future construction of street barricades to resist the government a matter of great difficulty. Paris contains a manufacturing population of over 400,000, making it one of the largest industrial towns in the world; it produces great quantities of jewellery, watches, and objects of art requiring peculiar taste and intelligence, and these it sends everywhere. Its environs are very varied and delightful. Versailles is a kind of suburb of Paris, ennobled since 1870 by the meetings of the Assembly in Louis XIV.'s huge palace there; at Sèvres is the celebrated china manufactory. The palace of S. Cloud, whence Charles X. listened to the roar of the revolutionary cannon in 1830, lies in ruins, like the Tuileries, since the catastrophe of 1870. At Vincennes, on the east, is the ancient castle where S. Louis held his court, and the park under whose trees he used to receive the petitions of his subjects; and on the north stands S. Denis, the cathedral of which, till the Revolution, contained the ashes of all the French kings.

The towns east of Paris are, first, those of the Oise (Isara) and Aisne (Axona) district; secondly, those of the Marne. The former are COMPIEGNE, at the junction of the Oise and Aisne, with its fine forest, the hunting ground of monarchs from Clodowig to Louis Napoleon. At SOISSONS (Noviodunum) on the Aisne, Francis I. gave the first order that French should be used in all public documents; and on the Vesle, a tributary of the Aisne, is the cheerful and

industrious RHEIMS, with its wide and clean streets, unlike those of a manufacturing town, leading to the noble cathedral in which so many kings of France have been crowned, and to which Jeanne d'Arc led her 'gentle Dauphin.' Between the Oise and Aisne is LAON, where one of the fiercest battles of 1814 was fought with the Russians ; and near the source of the latter river are S. MENEHOULD and VARENNES, where the flight of Louis XVI. and his family ended so miserably in 1792. Just west of these is VALMY, where in the same year Dumouriez succeeded in holding the passes of the Argonne against the Prussian army under the Duke of Brunswick, and thus delaying them till military operations were impossible for the year, and the whole invasion came to an end. On the Marne is EPERNAY, the centre of the champagne districts ; near it is the castle of HAM, from which Louis Napoleon escaped in 1846 in the disguise of a carpenter, and CHÂLONS-SUR-MARNE, the largest military dépôt and camp of exercise in France. West of the Marne the Seine forms an interior, but less convex, curve from its source in the Côte d'Or to Paris ; upon it is CHÂTILLON-SUR-SEINE, and TROYES (Augustobona), the capital of the old province of Champagne. The latter distinguished itself in the early part of the Middle Ages by its great commercial fairs (whence the expression 'troy weight'). Like many other French towns inhabited by Protestants, it was nearly ruined by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1686. At the junction of the Seine and Yonne is MONTEREAU-FAULT-YONNE,

where in 1419 Jean-sans-Peur, Duke of Burgundy, was assassinated by the Orleans faction ; and near it FONTAINEBLEAU, with its charming forest scenery, and the palace where Pius VII. lived as Napoleon's prisoner, where Josephine languished after her divorce, and where her faithless husband signed his first abdication in 1814. On the Seine between Montereau and Paris is MELUN (Melodunum), and near the Yonne are SENS (Agedincum) and AUXERRE.

East of the districts just described lies the great basin of the MEUSE, extending from the plateau of Langres to the estuary of the Rhine. This contains the French cities of TOUL, VERDUN, SEDAN, MEZIERES, and GIVET. The two first of these, with Metz, composed the 'Three Bishoprics' of the Middle Ages. SEDAN was till 1642 the capital of the Duchy of Bouillon ; as a Protestant town, it suffered from the same cause as Troyes, and has recently gained a sad but world-wide celebrity, from the surrender of the combined French armies there in 1870. GIVET, the last French town along the Meuse, occupies the end of a bay or narrow point of French territory running into that of Belgium. Hence in the war of 1870 it was more than once the object of the Germans to drive French troops up in this direction, and thus force them across the frontier to be disarmed by the Belgians. Near Neufchateau, and on the Meuse, is DOMREMY, the village of Jeanne d'Arc. Up to the French Revolution the register of French taxation had the following entry, "Domrémy, rien à cause de la Pucelle ;" the deliverer of France having requested

this exemption, as the sole reward for her immortal services.

A little north of Mezières, the Meuse, on its way to NAMUR and the plains of Belgium, penetrates the western part of the high plateau of the ARDENNES (*Arduenna*, 'ar duinn,' 'the deep'). This is now not precisely a forest, but a district scattered all over with dwarf oaks and other small timber; it occupies much of the double angle formed by the Rhine, Moselle, and Meuse, Aix-la-Chapelle being on its northern and Luxemburg on its southern edge. Covering, as it does, so much of the old German frontier, and presenting from its wildness a great barrier against communication, it kept apart the French and German nationalities almost as well as a chain like the Alps or Pyrenees would have done. East of the Ardennes the Moselle rises on the edge of the Vosges, and crosses the frontier between Nancy and Metz on its way to Treves, Coblenz, and the Rhine. NANCY, the ancient capital of Lorraine, is one of the most regularly built and bright towns of France; and is patriotically striving to make its university inherit the learning and intellectual vigour of the lost Strasburg.

It will be noticed that the 86 departments of France are almost uniformly named after its rivers, as Oise, Aisne, Marne, &c. This nomenclature was introduced in 1789, with the thoroughgoing purpose of getting rid of the whole provincial distinction in laws, privileges, and manners, according to which people were, as it was then thought, Picards or Burgundians first, and Frenchmen afterwards. The part of France

hitherto sketched included the old provinces of the ILE DE FRANCE round Paris, PICARDY along the Somme, ARTOIS from near Arras to the sea, and FRENCH FLANDERS from Artois to the frontier. East of the Ile de France were, first the great province of CHAMPAGNE, then LORRAINE and ALSACE up to the Rhine. The lost province of ALSACE lies entirely beyond the Vosges ; between it and the Ile de France the country naturally separates into a region of low chalk slopes on the west, and one of rugged hills and forests on the east ; the former of these is CHAMPAGNE, the latter LORRAINE.

## CHAPTER V.

### SOUTHERN AND WESTERN FRANCE.

BELOW the sources of the Seine, Marne, and Meuse, we enter upon the second of the sections of France whose character has been so strongly contrasted in the preceding chapter, containing, in the valleys of the Rhone, Saone, and their tributaries, part of the old province of Burgundy, with Franche Comté, Savoy, Dauphiné, and Provence; also the Lyonnais, and part of Languedoc.

\*.\* Here it is necessary again to notice the strong separation caused by the Cevennes, and the ranges connected with it, between the eastern and western provinces of France. A good instance of this will be found in the route towards Saintonge, on the west coast, taken by the Helvetian emigrants in B.C. 58. Though pursued by Cæsar, they never thought of taking a straight course for the Cevennes and Forez, but tried to turn these mountains by way of Autun. In illustrating this, the author of *Jules Cæsar* remarks that the diligence road from Lyons to Rochelle used to be, within recent memory, not by Roanne and the Upper Loire, but by Autun and Nevers; that is, as far north as the point where the Loire and Allier unite after leaving the mountains.

The great south-west valley begins with the sources of the Saone, which are near Plombières, and the

junction of the Plateau of Langres and the Faucilles with the Vosges. Below Dôle the Saone receives the Doubs, which rises in one of the straight valleys of the Jura already described, and would flow south-west, but that all these valleys have a slight rise at their centre. Accordingly the Doubs is forced to take the opposite direction ; but returns to the natural one as soon as it escapes from the chain. Near its point of emergence are the two great French fortresses of BELFORT and MONTBELIARD, important, even after the loss of Metz, by their position on the flank of any invader. On the lower Doubs is BESANÇON (Vesontio), surrounded by the river much as Shrewsbury is by the Severn. Its principal industry, that of watchmaking, is now sorely endangered by the immense improvements which this manufacture has lately received in the United States. It may be hoped that the high intelligence which characterizes the place will find means to avert the evil.

On or near the Saone lie the Burgundian towns of CHALONS-SUR-SAONE (Cabillonum), MACON, and DIJON (Dibio). The last was the capital of Charles the Bold, and, though annexed on his death in 1477, long maintained an attitude of its own very independent of Paris. Two historical facts illustrate the central character of its site. In ancient times Vercingetorix collected his chief remaining forces at Alesia, in its immediate neighbourhood, evidently because that this was a convenient point of assembly for the whole of Gaul, from which he hoped to re-

ceive further help ; \* and recently, in the year 1800, Napoleon collected an army there, knowing that it would be impossible for the Austrians to know from the position of the place whether he intended to attack them by the north or south of Switzerland. His ultimately doing neither, but making for the Valais and the S. Bernard on the way to Alessandria, is further suggestive of the fact that a railway carried from Dijon straight into Switzerland, and across the Simplon to Milan, would be more than 100 miles shorter than the Mont Cenis route between the same places.

At LYON (Lugdunum) the Saone falls into the Rhone, which has passed on its way from the Lake of Geneva through a series of wonderful gorges, in one of which it actually flows underground. This is the centre of the southern silk manufacture, originally introduced there by Florentine exiles. The Jacquard loom, invented by a townsman, stimulated it to new life after it had long been suffering from the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. The work has never been collected in large mills, but is left to be done by hand-loomers in the workmen's homes. In the year 1831 a frantic attempt by the weavers, with the countenance of the magistrates, to fix an invariable tariff for labour, irrespective of the price of the finished article, led to the most terrible of riots, which smouldered on for three years, and did much to weaken the throne of Louis Philippe.

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\* Near Dijon, therefore, a statue of Vercingetorix has lately been erected.



After Lyon the Rhone runs in a remarkably straight course, bordered by the noble towns of VIENNE, VALENCE, ORANGE, AVIGNON, and ARLES. VALENCE is the junction of the Isère, and therefore of the great valley of Savoy. AVIGNON (Avenio), at the mouth of the Durance, has been successively a Roman city, a mediæval republic, and, after 1348, the property of the Popes, to whom it belonged till the revolutionary government in 1791 annexed it by simple resolution. The massive palace of the Popes still towers above the city as seen from the river. ARLES (Arelate) was up to the twelfth century considered peculiarly holy; and corpses were often floated down the river in casks, with money to pay for their burial there. As a republic, it had fleets of its own, which reached the sea, not by the dangerous stream of the Grand Rhône, but by a canal which still remains. Just below Arles begins the CAMARGUE, including the Rhone delta and something more on each side; it is a district of salt marshes, and its northern parts are occupied by a few inhabitants. To protect them from inundations dykes have been raised at the apex, which, by hindering the stream from washing out the salt, have perpetuated its barrenness; so that beavers and African flamingoes still haunt the lonely pools. On the east of Arles is AIX (Aquæ Sextiæ), where the victory of Marius over the Teutones was, till quite lately, commemorated by processions to the 'Mont S. Victoire' outside the town.

The great angle made by the Rhone at Lyon, the

arms of which extend to the Alps and the sea, incloses a large mountain district. The Maritime Alps run westward along the coast from Mentone to Cannes; we have then towards the north the Monte Viso and Mont Genèvre ranges, the great valley of Savoy with its surrounding heights, and the huge mass of M. Blanc, which has become a French mountain since the cession of Savoy in 1860. From this general line other great groups project west into France; the principal being the picturesque Montagnes des Maures, along the sea from Toulon to Fréjus (Forum Julii), and the Ventoux and Oisans group north of the upper Durance. The Montagnes des Maures obtain their name from the Arabs, who long held out there when the Carolingians had driven them from Languedoc. From Briançon in the Oisans to Pinerolo on the Italian side is the country of the Waldenses, who since the twelfth century have held, often amid persecutions, a vigorous form of Protestantism, having the Bible in their own language, and witnessing against the wealth, power, and cruelty of the mediæval church.

On the seacoast of this district we have MENTONE, MONACO, NICE, CANNES, TOULON, MARSEILLES, and AIGUES MORTES. The coast up to Nice was surrendered by Italy to France in 1860, in consideration of the help afforded against Austria in the preceding year. MONACO is still a small principality under the protection of France; the rock-built town was once a haunt of pirates, and still uses its independence for plunder by the safer means of the gaming-

table.\* Its rulers have farther enriched themselves by selling Mentone to France. CANNES is where Napoleon landed on his return from Elba, Toulon (Telo Martius) the great Mediterranean arsenal of France, and MARSEILLES (Massilia) probably the oldest of her cities, and a place of great trade, which will be greater as Algeria develops. The old city, with its crowd of narrow, hilly, and fetid streets, lies in the angle between the old port and the sea.

The principal entrance to Savoy is by the Isère, which runs from the west flank of M. Blanc to the Rhone at Valence. In its valley is GRENOBLE (Gratianopolis), the capital of the old Dauphiné. It has the advantage of an admirable situation, of a trade in gloves employing 20,000 people, of a vigorously intellectual spirit, and of a habit of real equality among its citizens which dates from before the Revolution. A little above it the line of the Isère is crossed by the second great valley of Savoy, that of Lake Bourget and of CHAMBERY, the home of Victor Emmanuel's dynasty, which was surrendered along with Nice and for the same reason. There is, however, little ground to regret the cession of Savoy, sad though it appeared at the time; as before it the country was hemmed in between the Alps on the east and a line of French custom-houses on the west, so as to be unable to develop its resources. The valley of Chambéry is continued south-

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\* The proprietor of this, who lately died, is said to have left a fortune of £3,500,000. What conclusion must be drawn from this historic circumstance?

ward into that of the MAURIENNE, which leads along the Arc to MODANE, at the foot of the M. Cenis tunnel. Other great passes from France to Italy are the Little S. Bernard, from S. Maurice, on the Isère, to Morgex, near the head of the Val d'Aosta; the M. Genève Pass, from Briançon to join the M. Cenis defile above Susa, and the Col di Tenda, from Nice to Cuneo and Turin. Between the Isère and Rhone is ANNECY, with its beautiful lakes.

Crossing the Rhone from Arles we have NIMES (Nemausus), with its beautiful Roman temple called the 'Maison Carrée,' then MONTPELIER, NARBONNE, and BEZIERS, the last celebrated for the most atrocious of the religious massacres in the Albigensian war. Now come into view the eastern ranges of the Pyrenean chain, called the Albères, with the stately peak of the Canigou, which has been seen at a distance of 187 miles. On their extreme east lies PERPIGNAN, commanding the main pass into Spain, called the Perthuis, as well as that of Puigcerda, which descends on Lerida by the VAL D'ANDORRA, a small republic under the joint sovereignty of France and of the Bishop of Urgel, and paying a tribute of £38 to the former and £18 to the latter suzerain.

The general character of the Pyrenees is that of a high sierra with very slight depression between its summits; consequently there are no passes, except those used by smugglers, between those just mentioned and the Bayonne cols of S. Jean de Luz, Roncesvalles, and a few others, all in the extreme west. The source of the Garonne is near the Mont

Perdu ; east of this is the Arriège, running by TARASCON and FOIX to the Garonne at Toulouse ; and west the Adour, rising in the Val de Bigorre, with a number of smaller streams spreading out in a fan-shape from the neighbourhood of TARBES, and falling into either the Garonne or the Adour. These mostly break from romantic valleys penetrating the very heart of the chain, such as the Cirque de Gavarnie, the valley of Cauterez at the head of the Gave de Pau, and those of Bagnères de Luchon and of Bagnères de Bigorre, on the upper Adour, at each of which thousands of visitors yearly see mountain scenery in perfection without any 'climbing sorrows.' The Pyrenean cities, as distinct from the watering places, are always placed at the debouchés of the great valleys ; such are BAYONNE, on the lower Adour ; TARBES, celebrated for the variety of costumes at its fairs ; PAU, the birthplace of Henry IV. of Navarre, and, towards the Mediterranean, CARCASSONNE, the ramparts and buildings of which, as restored by M. Viollet le Duc, afford the most varied and perfect specimens possible of Roman and French architecture. The old provinces of the Pyrenean district are LANGUEDOC, ROUSSILLON, FOIX, GASCOGNE, and BERN. The language of the western mountaineers is still the strange Basque spoken by the Iberian or pre-Celtic inhabitants of Spain, France, and Great Britain ; their occupation is exclusively pastoral. Although they have the advantage of the mountains and the 'landes' below as alternate summer and winter pastures, they do not show the power of making the

most of their position ; and the produce of the higher districts is less than a tenth of what similar regions produce in the Alps. On the Gave de Pau, a little above the city itself, is LOURDES, which contends with Paray-le-Monial, near Autun, and La Salette, in the Oisans, which shall draw most pilgrims to the scene of the visions of which they severally boast.

On the descent from the Pyrenees, Western France begins with the district of the LANDES. Except as regards these, and the Auvergne mountains which form an important portion of the central plateau, there is little on this side of the country which requires description. Its harbours are distant from one another, and from the centre ; communication with the Rhone valley, as already stated, is very difficult. Hence its population has always been isolated from the main body of Frenchmen, first as belonging to the English monarchy, but afterwards from causes almost entirely geographical. As there is no western coalfield, manufactures have not been established there on a large scale ; on the other hand, the growth of corn and timber has been favoured by the combination of warmth with the abundant moisture of the Atlantic.\*

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\* In old times this alienation of the west coast from the rest of France may be illustrated by the desire felt by Cæsar's Helvetii to efface themselves, as it were, by marching "in Santonum fines;" in the Middle Ages by the unwillingness with which the Aquitanian provinces saw themselves united to France, and the attempts which they subsequently made to restore the English dominion ; in recent times, abundantly, by the Vendean resistance to the Revolution.

The LANDES of the Adour and Garonne occupy a large part of Roman and mediæval Aquitaine. Below Toulouse the marine strait of Naurouze, already noticed, must in early geological times have expanded westward into a great triangular bay, with three equal sides of about 130 miles each. This is now a sandy wilderness, left dry by a rise of the land. It is bordered in a singular way, first by a range of lakes, called Etangs, which were originally small arms of the sea. After a while the sand-drifts barred them from it, and accumulations of rain-water from the land gradually freshened them; only the Bassin d'Arcachon is still open. Within and among these are ranges of sand-hills, often 70 feet high, also collected by the west winds from the sea-shore. A remarkable point is that both lakes and sandhills are in appreciable eastward motion; the former because the barrier between them and the sea widens, the latter because their consistence does not allow them, unless planted with trees (which is not always possible), to maintain their position against strong westerly winds. At the time of the Revolution, when the peasantry had escaped from superintendence, the great increase of goats gravely imperilled the trees of this district; accordingly, when Napoleon became First Consul in 1800, one of his first cares was to have the destroyers shot down by a regiment despatched for the purpose. The shepherds of the Landes live a rude pastoral life amid their deserts, where each has several 'homes,' it being impossible to support the flocks long in one place. Their habit is to walk on stilts six feet high;

thus elevated they bid defiance to sharp brushwood, and even to the attacks of wolves, and are said to be able to keep up, not only with the horses of the country, but with the trains on the Arcachon railway. They make some profit from the resin obtained by incision from the pine trees which grow everywhere. The whole population of DAX and the other towns in the Landes is under 30,000.

On the edge of this strange country stands BORDEAUX, the capital of the old province of GUIENNE. In its neighbourhood the narrow strip along the Garonne is more valuable for its produce than the whole extent of the Landes, inasmuch as here are the vineyards of Medoc, Chateau Margot, and others, producing claret of fabulous price, as well as inferior wine in large quantities. The growth of the vine is much stimulated by the heat of the Landes, combined with the sea-moisture. BORDEAUX (Burdigala) was once the Black Prince's capital, yet was allowed, even then, the most entire self-government; after the English had lost it, the inhabitants, fearing for their franchises, showed little disposition to fraternise with the rest of France. At the Revolution its deputies (called the Girondins) gave their lives in the vain attempt to stem the torrent of violence. Since then it has not ceased to have an individual life of its own; its last time of prominence in French history being when in 1871 the Assembly retreated thither from Paris, and drew up the constitution under which France is now living.

The chief tributaries of the Garonne are the Dordogne, Lot, Aveyron, and Tarn. On the Lot



and Aveyron are CAHORS and RODEZ respectively; on the Tarn MONTAUBAN, celebrated as a great Protestant town, and ALBI,\* whence the Albigenses derived their name—the neighbouring TOULOUSE, however, being their capital. This last is on the Garonne, and is the sixth city in France, with a population of 125,000: it owes its importance partly to its excellent military position, as commanding the ways to Bordeaux, Bayonne, Carcassonne, and Lyons by way of Albi, and partly to its collecting the produce from the plain of the Garonne. Few passages of history are sadder than the struggle of Raymond, its last Count, against the northern crusaders. After his defeat the city was made a centre of the Inquisition; and that the lessons of cruelty once learned there were not readily forgotten is shown not only by the fact that the Tolosans were the last Frenchmen who burned heretics, but by the fate of its citizen, the unhappy Calas, whose unjust condemnation on a frivolous charge of murder, was made known to Europe by the exertions of Voltaire. Since 1814 it has more than doubled its population.

The Dordogne rises near the chief summits of the AUVERGNE plateau, the Mont d'Or and the Plomb de Cantal, and flows at right angles to the plain of the Limagne and the upper Allier. Few districts of France are so interesting to the traveller as this; the plateau being one crust of extinct volcanoes. Cattle

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\* Near Albi is Sorèze, to whose ancient abbey Lacordaire retired, giving up his triumphant career at Paris in order to found there what Mr. Arnold calls "a French Eton."

graze there quietly to the very bottom of great craters of eruption (as they did till the year 70 on Vesuvius); streams have hollowed beds hundreds of feet deep through the hard rock, and then re-excavated them when the gorge had been filled with still harder lava; great fields of scorix called 'cheires' can be traced from the cones; and immense terraces of basaltic columns come out on the mountain sides, or are shown in section along the streams. On the east flank of the Puy de Dôme is CLERMONT, the capital of the old Auvergne, and near it the ruins of GERGOVIA, which foiled the arms of Cæsar.

Between the Gironde (or estuary of the Garonne) and the Loire the country has little mark. It contains the old provinces of POITOU, ANGOUMOIS, SAINTONGE, and AUNIS; and has fourteen rivers, but not one navigable. Its northern part is La Vendée, famous from 1793 to 1795 for the anti-revolution struggles of Lescure and Larochejaquelein. The country bears the name of the 'Bocage' from the number of single trees in it, which, when seen from eminences a little distance off, look like a continuous 'grove.' It has two ports, ROCHEFORT and LA ROCHELLE; the latter was the home of Protestantism till Richelieu in 1628 cast his mole across the harbour, and at length secured the honour of saying the first mass among the ruins of the town. Off it are the islands of Ré and Oléron, the former celebrated for Buckingham's prodigious failure there in 1627: both appear to be fragments of a coast line shattered by the sea. Inland the most notable places are LIMOGES, with kaolin

beds and a famous porcelain manufactory, and POITIERS, where the Black Prince took prisoner King John in 1356, and where the much more important victory of Charles Martel in 732 rolled back for ever from France the tide of Mohamedan invasion.

The old provinces of central France are BERRI, MARCHE, and TOURAINE, with the BOURBONNAIS, NIVERNOIS, and ORLEANNAIS, the chief towns of which are respectively BOURGES, GUERET, TOURS, MOULINS, NEVERS, and ORLEANS.

After receiving the Allier, as above-mentioned, near NEVERS, the Loire passes east of BOURGES, the central town of France, which theorists have sometimes pointed out as its ideal capital; unpractically, as the reasons given in the last chapter show. At the most northerly point of the river curve is ORLEANS (Genabum?), and below it BLOIS, TOURS, and NANTES. ORLEANS has 49,000 inhabitants, much occupied in the manufacture of merino; but is more celebrated for the wonderful capture of its 'bastiles' by Jeanne d'Arc in 1429. On a curious peninsula, between the Loire and Cher, is TOURS, the favourite city of Louis XI., to which he attracted many silk-workers from Italy, by whose means the trade was ultimately spread to Lyon. North of the Loire we have the old provinces of ANJOU, MAINE, BRETAGNE, and NORMANDY. ANGERS, the capital of Anjou, is celebrated for its slate quarries; and NANTES, at the mouth of the river, imports large quantities of sugar and other colonial produce, besides coal and timber.

It has 118,000 inhabitants, but is declining, as the port has not sufficient water for the large vessels now in use. The chief town of Maine is LE MANS, above Angers, on the Sarthe.

The great western headland of France is occupied by the singular and interesting province of BRETAGNE, from LAVAL to CAPE FINISTERRE. It was long a duchy separated from the rest of France, and many of its inhabitants still speak the Breton language, which is akin to the Welsh, Irish, Gaelic, old Cornish, and Manx. Its strongest connexion with France, in fact, began when Cardinal Richelieu, by a characteristic stroke of genius, resolved on forming a great naval arsenal at its western extremity; accordingly vast constructions were ordered at BREST, in utter disregard of the distance from Paris, and of the wildness of the country at that time. The roads have a very narrow entrance, called the 'Goulet,' hard to make in stormy weather; but within there is room for the whole navy of France. The population of the town is 66,000; QUIMPER and MORLAIX are older and smaller ports; S. MALO, opposite the Channel Islands, is celebrated for the enterprise of its mariners, who discovered Canada and the Falkland Islands, which were at first called 'les Malouines.' Near it is MONT S. MICHEL, crowned by its beautiful church; it is an island at high water, as is natural, since the tides in this bay actually rise more than 50 feet, from the combined influence, as M. Reclus remarks, of the Channel and North Sea tidal waves, added to the check which the ebb suffers from meet-

ing the last of the flood coming in from the islands, where it has been retarded by friction. On the south coast, near the river Vilaine, is the curious promontory of QUIBERON, where in 1795 the emigrant expedition sent out from England under Puisaye was hopelessly hemmed in and defeated by Hoche and Humbert. Near this, again, is CARNAC, famous for its Druidical temple, from which, however, thousands of stones have disappeared. The old capital of the duchy was RENNES.

\* \* The Bretons differ from their French neighbours in many other points besides language. Their religion contained, up to a recent time, a strange mixture of pagan and semi-pagan elements, such as the invocation of 'Notre Dame de la Haine,' in the hope that an enemy may die within the year, the belief in the inspiration of idiots, and divination by the mistletoe. It is even said that Christianity reached the island of Batz, near Quiberon, only in the 12th century. A hundred years ago the people were cruel wreckers, as in Cornwall; some were even accused of misleading vessels by false lights. The good point in their character has been their loyalty to the Crown and to religion, which produced the firm resistance of the so-called 'Chouans' to the revolutionary generals at the end of the last century. They did not, however, succeed in combining for this purpose with the equally zealous Vendéans. Their alienation, and the consequent exile of the Breton nobles, had the worst effect on the French navy of the time. This had always been an aristocratic service, and in its deserted state was far less capable than ever before of matching the splendid seamanship of Nelson and his contemporaries.

Lastly, we have to describe NORMANDY. This great and fertile province differs much from those surrounding it. It is a land of small fenced fields,

with numberless copses and small woods kept up to supply fuel. The rivers are mostly small, and springing from the line of heights bordering the provinces on the south. Such are the Vire, Eure, and Epte. The chief towns are CHERBOURG, CAEN, ROUEN, and HAVRE. The first of these is at the end of the long promontory called the COTENTIN, and is a fortress of tremendous strength. Its harbour is closed by a large breakwater, more than two miles long, the entrances on each side of which are commanded by fire in all directions, not to mention that it has itself several strong works upon it. The quarries of CAEN supply a beautiful stone much used for London building; the city is a perfect study of mediæval architecture. With ROUEN (Rotomagus) we return to the Seine, which from Paris downwards affords constant scenes of beauty and interest. This city is the ancient capital of Normandy, and is filled with admirable buildings, among which the Palais de Justice is conspicuous. In the Tour de Jeanne d'Arc all the touching scenes of her trial took place. Rouen is still a seaport, and has large cotton manufactures. HAVRE DE GRACE, at the mouth of the Seine, is the second in size of the French ports, with a population of 94,000. It is the Liverpool of France, importing nearly all the cotton which reaches the country, as well as West Indian produce, and metals from England and elsewhere. By great exertions the inhabitants succeed in keeping the mouth of the Seine deep enough for their vessels to enter.

Among smaller Norman places we may note

FALAISE, the birthplace of William the Conqueror; BAYEUX, which possesses the priceless relic of the tapestry wrought by the hands of Queen Matilda, and depicting the events of the Norman Conquest; and DIEPPE, an ancient and picturesque seaport, with a speciality for carvings in ivory.

- \*.\* The Channel Islands of Jersey (Cæsarea), Guernsey (Sarnia), and Alderney (Riduna, Aurigny), may be mentioned here, though still held and fortified by England as the last relic of her French possessions. They are rocky and romantic islands, situated among the violent currents of the "Morbihan," or "Little Sea," with a collective population of about 90,000, and prosperous partly by their garden-like culture, partly by their freedom from heavy taxation. Their language is still French, though English is generally understood. In Guernsey, on which Alderney, with its fine harbour, depends, the Jurats, a strange sort of oligarchs, were, till 1846, able to apply English or French law to any case as suited their predilections, acting as magistrates, grand jury, and judges successively, and rendering nugatory all appeals to superior authority in criminal cases by instantly carrying out their sentences. They also used either language at pleasure. The survival of French institutions in the islands makes them a desirable residence for French political exiles like Victor Hugo, as they can live there without changing their habits, and are also close at hand in case of reaction at home. The chief town of Jersey is St. Helier; that of Guernsey, St. Pierre Port.

## CHAPTER VI.

### NORTH GERMANY.

THERE are two senses in which the expression 'North Germany' may be used. Physically, it is the country north of the chain including first the Vosges, Palatinate mountains, Odenwald, Spessart, and Rhöngelbirge, and then the higher ranges of the Thuringerwald, Fichtelgebirge, Erzgebirge, and Riesengebirge, which, with the outlying ranges of the Taunus, Hunsrück, Eifel, Rothhaar, and Black Forest, form the great secondary of the Alps described in Chapter I. Politically, North Germany includes all the countries which now form part of the great northern empire founded in 1871.

\*.\* Before the wars with France at the beginning of the century the German Empire had consisted of about 300 states. It had, in fact, been the interest of the imperial government to weaken by subdivision the power of its great vassals, especially as the larger kingdoms nominally subject to it, like Prussia, Saxony, and Bavaria, were independent even to the point of warring against the Emperor. In 1805 and the following years the whole fabric was shaken by the French victories—Napoleon considering himself as ordained "*pour dépayser l'Allemagne.*" On his fall in 1815 the reconstruction remained principally in the hands of Prussia and Austria. As, however, various jealousies made it im-



possible to restore the Empire, or even to create an effective German federation, these powers contented themselves with 'mediatising'—that is, reducing to the rank of nobles in the great states—the greater part of the former princes, and thus making Germany consist of only thirty-three independent states. Political unity being impossible, the Prussian government, with consummate skill, applied itself (1833) to the task of welding the twenty-one northern states into a great customs' league called the Zollverein; which was the more necessary as the transit dues from state to state were absorbing much of the profits of trade. Thus not only these states, but even those of the south, were taught to look to Prussia as the guardian of their material welfare. Accordingly, no sooner was Austria struck down by the Prussian arms in the 'Seven Weeks' War' of 1866, and forced to allow the Confederation of 1815 to be dissolved, than there was a rush even of the southern states which had been beaten with Austria—such as Würtemberg, Baden, Bavaria, and Hesse Darmstadt—to join the North German confederation now to be constituted. Singularly enough these events were so misread by Louis Napoleon, that he actually issued in 1870 a manifesto, saying that one of his chief objects in going to war was "to redeem the South German states from Prussian tyranny." The reply made by Prussia to this was practical. Her Crown Prince was sent to command the South Germans, and orders were given that they should be the first to attack the enemy. Accordingly they dashed irresistibly on the French right at Weissenburg and Wörth, and practically decided the course to be taken by the war. Its progress after a while raised the enthusiasm for Prussia to such a height that, on the 18th of January, 1871, the King was unanimously, except by Austria, accepted as Emperor of Germany. In this capacity he has the power of declaring war in the name of all, and summoning contingents from each state to wage it; while an assembly elected by all of them settles matters connected with the German army, navy, customs, post-office, and a few other subjects. In other respects the various states administer their own affairs.

The chief rivers of Germany are the Rhine, Weser, Elbe, Oder, and Vistula. It may be said in general, that the states of the German Empire lie on the Middle Rhine and Lower Vistula, and along nearly the whole course of the other rivers. The rivers afford, as noticed in Chapter I., excellent water-ways into the heart of the country, as the Elbe is navigable from Prague, in Bohemia, to Hamburg and the sea; the Oder from Silesia to Stettin; the Vistula from Galicia to Dantzic; and the Weser from Minden to Bremen and its port. Besides this advantage, there exists, at a distance of about 100 miles from the Baltic coast, a series of depressions, passing from river to river, and probably indicating that each river once had a course more to the west than at present. One of these is occupied by the Spree and Havel, which together connect the Oder and Elbe, through what is called the Frederic William Canal. In like manner the canal of Bromberg joins the Vistula with the Oder. Thus a long line of internal navigation parallel with the Baltic coast is secured. The lakes which lie along it are only the largest among the thousands which, as noticed above, overspread the whole of northern Prussia, and afford the strongest proof that it was below the sea-level at a period comparatively recent. As will be presently seen, they determine the natural position for the capital of Prussia.

The chief states in the German Empire are BADEN, WÜRTTEMBERG, and BAVARIA, lying in succession between the Rhine and the Bohemian mountains; SAXONY, on the part of the Elbe just north of the

Erzgebirge, and the great kingdom of PRUSSIA, chiefly situated on the great northern plain, whose area of 167,000 square miles and population of 25,000,000, are more than double of all the rest collectively.

•• Prussia has assumed her preponderance through a series of well-marked historical events. She began her career of greatness by the union of the old Margraviate of Brandenburg with the Stettin part of Pomerania (1464), and with East Prussia (1525). After this the victories of Frederic the Great (1740-1763) gave her Silesia, and the various partitions of Poland the provinces of West Prussia and Posen. Lastly, Westphalia and the Rhine Provinces were the reward, in 1815, for the part which she had taken against Napoleon I.; Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Nassau were the trophies of the struggle with Austria which she ended in 1866; and Alsace and Lorraine were surrendered to her by France in 1871. Comparing a map of the present day with one prior to 1866, it will be evident at a glance how much Prussia gained when in 1866 her acquisition of Hanover and Hesse-Cassel united her older dominions with those she possessed on the Rhine, giving her, among other places, the great railway centre at CASSEL, on the Fulda, from which so many railways ramify towards the Rhine, North Germany, and the Saxon States. Whether, on the contrary, her annexation of Alsace and Lorraine will not be to her a source of weakness and danger, from the power of French feeling in these provinces, still remains to be seen.

The geography of Germany will be best indicated by following the course of the great rivers, and taking the cities and towns on or near their banks.

The first German city to the south is CONSTANZ, on the south side of the lake of the same name, yet not in Switzerland, but in the Grand Duchy of Baden. Long a free imperial city, engaged in commerce on a

splendid scale, it dwindled almost to nothing in the centuries which followed the murder of Huss there, in 1415. After the great northward curve at Basle the Rhine flows between the Vosges on the west and the Black Forest on the east, at the bottom of a flat valley which must once have been a large lake. At Bingen it has cut a great gorge, about 50 miles long, through the Taunus and Hundsrück ranges, and escapes just above Bonn from this mountain region to enter upon the great alluvial plain of north-west Europe. Almost entirely on the left or Roman bank of the river lie the great Rhenish cities; first, the noble STRASBURG (*Argentoratum*, 90,000), on the small river Iller. Its cathedral is the finest in North Europe; the city commands the chief road from Paris to Central Germany. West of it is the forest country of Alsace and East Lorraine, the loss of which has taken from France the extensive coalfield of the Sarre, MUHLHAUSEN with its important cotton factories, the great glass-works of FORBACH, and, above all, Strasburg itself, and the gigantic fortress of METZ, now made stronger than ever. Below Strasburg the Rhine passes between the Bavarian Palatinate and Baden, with SPEYER (*Noviomagus*) on the left, and MANNHEIM, the capital of Baden, on the right. Below these are MAINZ (*Moguntiacum*), at the junction of the Main, and COBLENZ (*Confluentes*), at that of the Mosel. Both of these are very strong fortresses, though now forming only a second line of defence. Below them are BONN, long the residence of the Archbishops of Cologne, and lately the university to which Niebuhr

belonged; and COLOGNE (Colonia Agrippina) where the splendid cathedral, forty years ago as incomplete as when Edward III. visited it, is now nearly finished by a subscription from all Germany. Cologne freed itself from the yoke of its Archbishops in the thirteenth century, and became the *depôt* of a magnificent trade between the north-west and south-east of Europe. But, after the Reformation, the 'German Rome' could not endure Protestants, and thus lost many of its most industrious inhabitants, besides which the Turkish conquests barred the Danube route to the east, while maritime discoveries opened to commerce quite different routes. The only rival to Cologne in her time of glory was FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN, about 10 miles from MAINZ. This city stood at the head of the great mercantile route from the Danube, described in Chapter I., and also on that from Leipzig to West Germany and France. Its freedom and wealth made it one of the noblest cities in Europe. Here emperors were elected, and sometimes crowned. It fell off from the same discoveries which damaged Cologne. After 1848 it became for a while the seat of a nominal German Empire; in 1866 it resisted Prussia, but was rapidly crushed, and has since then, strange to say, been attached, in spite of its population of 100,000 and its historic renown, to the district of Wiesbaden, a mere watering-place with 20,000.

To the right and left of the Rhine the following places require attention. In the curve below Basle is the 'Schwarzwald' or Black Forest, a beautiful

mountain district, whose inhabitants are occupied partly in agriculture, partly in the manufacture of clocks and watches, the last especially along the river Kinzig. From hence the large timber rafts are floated down the Rhine. The Black Forest mountains belong to the same system as the Vosges, and are separated from them only by the deep valley which the Rhine has excavated. West of Coblenz is the striking volcanic district of the Eifel, which is described enthusiastically in a letter of C. Kingsley's. He speaks of "mountains fallen in; hills blown up into the wildest perpendicular crags; craters with the lips so perfect, that the fire might have been blazing in them twelve months ago." Below Cologne, on the right bank of the Rhine, is the great coal-field of the river Ruhr, narrow where it touches the Rhine, but running inwards 46 miles in the direction of Dortmund, and broadening as it goes. On it are several considerable industrial towns. At ESSEN is the huge foundry for the 'Krupp' guns. ELBERFELD, with the adjacent BARMEN, has a population of 167,000, chiefly employed in the silk, cotton, and flax manufacture. The goods of the district are embarked at DUSSELDORF, which is, however, a quiet, leafy town, suited to be, as it was till lately, the chief school of German painting. CREFELD, on the left bank of the Rhine, has a name for silks, velvets, and ribands. On the Mosel, above Coblenz, is TREVES (Augusta Trevirorum), the most ancient city of Germany, once the residence of the Emperor Constantine. Its 'Porta Nigra' is one of the grandest Roman

buildings in existence. West of Cologne is AACHEN (or Aix la Chapelle), near the Ardennes, the capital and tomb of Charlemagne, adorned by him with marbles stripped from Ravenna. Just below CLEVES the Rhine leaves Germany for Holland.

The WESER is formed by the confluence of the Fulda and Werra, which rise in the Rhöngesbirge, a chain which, with the Spessart and Fichtelgebirge, forms the "nativus murus" of Cæsar, the difficult mountain boundary of Bavaria, through which the railway from Eisenach to Munich winds. At the Wartburg, near Eisenach, Luther's room remains just as he left it. North of this is the city of HANOVER, and, near the sea, BREMEN, which, with HAMBURG and LÜBECK, keeps alive the memory of the noble 'free towns' of Germany, and of the Hanseatic League.

- In the year 1241 the cities of Hamburg and Lübeck formed a league for the purpose of defending themselves against piracy and the extortions of the nobles, and of exchanging timber, hemp, and the like, for spices and other productions of the East, and the manufactures of the Netherlands and Italy. They were soon joined by Bremen, Riga, Dantzic, and a host of other towns. Their chief depôt for goods was Bruges; under the name of 'Easterlings,' or merchants of the Steelyard, they had an establishment in London, and were also settled, among other places, at Bergen, and even Novogorod. They had fleets of their own and a Hanseatic flag; and obtained in many places great commercial privileges, which they had not the least idea of reciprocating. This refusal often embroiled them in war with England and other northern powers; in 1598 Queen Elizabeth gave orders for the seizure of 108 of their vessels—an affront which they retaliated by all the means in their power. According to

Pauli, they maintained a semi-monastic discipline in their establishments; no one in the Steelyard, rich or poor, being allowed to be married. In the seventeenth century they died out, as the force of commercial enterprise in the nations of Europe then became too great to tolerate such a monopoly. But before this they had done a great and glorious work, being, in fact, among the first pioneers of civilization in Europe.

The ELBE, which is successively an Austrian, Saxon, and Prussian river, rises in Bohemia on the inner side of the Riesengebirge, not far from the sources of the Oder and Vistula on the outer side. Near KULM it enters the Saxon territory, and after issuing from the strangely-pinnacled rocks of the Saxon Switzerland, passes through DRESDEN, the capital of SAXONY (198,000). This is a highly interesting city, its electors and kings having collected a surprising number of fine pictures and other rarities. These were paid for principally by the silver mines of the Erzgebirge, which produced in the sixteenth century 400,000 florins a year, but are not now proportionably valuable. North-west of Dresden, on the Elster, a small tributary of the Saale, and still in Saxony, is LEIPZIG (210,000), the metropolis of books and music. On the plain near the city Napoleon's power in Germany was broken in the great 'nation-fight' of 1813. In the south-west of Saxony is CHEMNITZ (78,000), called the Saxon Manchester, which has increased its population tenfold in the present century. At MEISSEN are the chief works for the celebrated Dresden china.

Following the Elbe into PRUSSIA we have WITTEN-



BERG, in the sixteenth century the greatest of Protestant universities; here Luther in 1520 burned Pope Leo's bull in favour of indulgences. It was celebrated also as the place of publication for the tale of *Faustus* and others of the same kind. Next comes MAGDEBURG, a city whose spirit is indicated by the inscription on one of its gates—"Verbum Dei durat in æternum." Its inhabitants endured a twelve months' siege in 1551, rather than submit to a semi-Romish confession, which Charles V. wished to enforce upon them. So complete was the destruction which it suffered from Tilly in 1631, that there are literally no old buildings in it. It is now a patriotic Prussian city, levying splendid regiments for the service of the crown in the neighbouring mountain-group of the HARZ, which is also celebrated for its mines of silver, lead, and iron, and for the striking way in which it rises above the North German plain. Just above Magdeburg is the junction of the Saale, on which is HALLE, with its celebrated university. About 100 miles from the sea is HAMBURG (389,000), the greatest of all the free cities; founded by Charlemagne on the Alster, but joined to the Elbe by several canals dug with extraordinary labour. Its commerce is still immense; and the city itself was, till the fire of 1842, one of the most characteristic in Germany. In time of war it extinguishes its light-houses, removes the buoys from its intricate channels, and, as in 1870, remains safe from attack by vessels of any size. LÜBECK, on the Trave, has now a population of only 57,000.

On the Upper Oder, along the Riesengebirge (or

'Giant Mountains,' though their greatest height is not more than 5,000 feet) is SILESIA, with the cities of BRESLAU, LIEGNITZ, and others. Its Protestant feeling made it glad to pass from the rule of Catholic Austria to that of Frederic the Great. It has now considerable cloth and linen manufactures. On the lower course of the river is FRANKFORT-ON-THE-ODER, with CÜSTRIN at the juncture with the Warta. At its mouth is STETTIN, which is the nearest port to Berlin, on the great inland sea called the 'Grosse Haf.' The VISTULA (in German, 'Weichsel') rises also on the Riesengebirge, in the great Austrian corn-growing province of Galicia. On or near the Prussian part of its course are THORN (the home of Copernicus), and the port of ELBING. At the mouth is DANTZIG (98,000), one of the most frequented of Baltic harbours, as it was one of the chief 'Hanse Towns.' Before the time of railways the corn from Galicia was sent down in boats almost open; accordingly the uppermost layer used to sprout till it had the appearance of a meadow, and thus preserved the rest from weather. On the Nogat channel, leading from the Vistula to the 'Frische Haf,' is MARIENBURG, once the head-quarters of the Teutonic knights, the original conquerors of East and West Prussia; and at the north end of the Frische Haf, where the Pregel enters it, is KÖNIGSBERG, also founded by the Order. It has large exports of hemp, flax, and timber, and is proud of its powerful thinker, Immanuel Kant. It is the chief town of East Prussia, as Dantzig of West Prussia. Lastly, the province of

POSEN has a capital of the same name on the Warta ; and at TILSIT, on the Niemen, Napoleon and Alexander I. met, in 1807, just after the terrible battles of Eylau and Friedland, which had crushed the Czar for the time. Like MEMEL, a port at the north end of the Kurische Haf, it is now much employed in smuggling goods through the Russian custom-houses on the frontier close by.

BERLIN (1,059,000), the capital of PRUSSIA, stands on the river Spree, in a sandy plain, which gives a peculiar dryness to the climate. Originally a fortress against the neighbouring Wends, it became the capital of the Electorate of Brandenburg in 1540, and has risen with the fortunes of the kingdom. Its suitability for a capital comes from its commanding position as regards the Elbe and Oder, with which it communicates, as stated above, through the Havel and Spree. It thus not only draws to itself supplies of food from the basins of both rivers, but has easy water-communication through them with the German Ocean and the Baltic, being, according to the expression of a German writer quoted by M. Reclus, "suspended like a spider's web between two trees." In virtue of its university, Berlin is the most learned city in the world, the Humboldts, Ritter, Bergk, Hermann, Brüsch, and Mädler, being a few of those who have made it illustrious. Its museums are admirably arranged, though smaller than those of London or Paris ; and, in spite of the flatness, there is great beauty in its environs, with their various lakes and streams.

\* \* It is interesting to see how the Prussian people has arrived at the state of efficiency which showed itself so strongly in 1870. This is to be attributed in great measure to the admirable system of general education which has now gone on for more than three generations, and to the great social reforms of the century. These reforms consisted, first, in the abolition in 1807 of the system of serfdom which the times of the Thirty Years' War had substituted for the early liberties of the peasantry. In 1811 the peasant holdings were declared the full property of the tenants, these agreeing to pay to the former lords compensation for the loss of their feudal rights, and receiving in turn compensation for other rights, such as that of gathering wood, so far as they surrendered them. The object in view, as expressed in the statute, was to give the 'Kleine Leute' a prospect of acquiring land, and thus to make them industrious, orderly, and saving. These two edicts constitute the great land reform of Stein and Hardenberg, which received its final development, after the revolution of 1848, by a third measure instituting banks for the purpose of advancing to the peasantry the money necessary for the full emancipation of their lands, to be repaid, of course, in a term of years.

The kingdom of Saxony has been already briefly described. That of *BAVARIA* lies on both sides of the Upper Danube, from Ulm to Passau, and is bounded on the north by the Spessart, Rhöngelbirge, and Fichtelgebirge; on the east by the Böhmerwald; and on the west by the lake of Constance, which it touches at Lindau, and by Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt. Its southern boundary was by the Congress of Vienna placed at a distance from the great chain of the Alps, in order that a power so constantly in alliance with France (from jealousy of Austria, its great eastern neighbour) might have no access to the passes leading into Italy; consequently

Austrian territory comes up to the lake of Constanz, at Bregenz. According to M. Reclus, the soil of Bavaria for many miles from the mountain ranges on the east and south is made up to a great depth entirely of *débris*, so that it is impossible to tunnel near the mountains, and railway cuttings have to be made to a depth of 90 feet or more, at a vast expense.

The principal Bavarian rivers are, south of the Danube, the LECH, ISAR, and INN. The two first rise in the Bavarian Tyrol, a land of exquisite mountain valleys, at the entrance of which lakes of great beauty are generally found, such as the Tegernsee and the Chiemsee, neither of which, however, is equal to the magnificence of the Königsee, in the south-east corner of the country near Salzburg, where precipices several thousand feet high everywhere sink down to the water's edge. The river Inn rises in the Swiss valley of the Engadine, passes through the Austrian Tyrol, and falls into the Danube at PASSAU. On the north of the Danube is the Main, rising in the Fichtelgebirge, and flowing west in a very winding course past the famous cities of BAMBERG and WÜRZBURG to join the Rhine below Frankfort. About half-way between the frontiers at Ulm and Passau is REGENSBURG (generally called Ratisbon), once the richest city of Germany, till the rivalry of Vienna deprived it of the commerce of the Danube. MUNICH is now the art-capital of South Germany, with a population of 190,000. As modern Bavaria is nothing if not classical, its chief town imitates in its public buildings those of the Acropolis at Athens; Regensburg en-

shrines the busts of German celebrities in its grand temple of the Walhalla ; and Bayreuth is proud of its model theatre, constructed by the king in order that Wagner's operas may be ideally performed. Far different are the old remembrances attaching to AUGSBURG on the Lech, and to NÜRNBERG and BAMBERG in North Bavaria. These lie along the great line of mediæval traffic mentioned in Chapter I., leading by the Danube and Rhine to Cologne and Antwerp, and, therefore, in the times before the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648), had reached an amount of wealth and dignity which German historians seem hardly able to remember without tears for the ruin which then came upon them. They praise the mingled splendour and economy of Nürnberg, the nobles who did not disdain trade, and the people who paid such willing regard to them ; the magnificent bankers of Augsburg, who lent money to kings, as the Rothschilds do now-a-days, and the splendid way in which the citizens entertained Emperors on occasion. All these, with WÜRZBURG and ULM, remain to this day living models of the appearance at least of an old German town.

A small part of the Bavarian territory, generally called the 'Bavarian Palatinate,' extends from the Rhine, in the neighbourhood of Spire, to the Saar. It contains LUDWIGSHAFEN, which has become a kind of suburb of Mannheim ; ZWEIBRÜCKEN (or Deux Ponts), celebrated for the series of 'Bipontine' classics printed there ; and the fortress of LANDAU.

The kingdom of WÜRTEMBERG and the Grand

Duchy of BADEN occupy the great angle of the Rhine, of which Basle is the vertex. The chief town of the former is STÜTTGART, on the NECKAR, which has a course through Würtemberg resembling, on a smaller scale, that of the Main through Bavaria; Würtemberg possesses also the university of TÜBINGEN, so celebrated for the discoveries of Helmholtz. The chief towns in BADEN are CARLSRUHE, HEIDELBERG, and MANNHEIM. HEIDELBERG, on the Neckar, the capital of the 'Palatinate' in the seventeenth century, has a famous university (the home of Bunsen and spectral analysis) and its unrivalled castle, long mutilated and dismantled.

The remaining states of the German Empire are, in the south, OLDENBURG on the lower, and LIPPE on the middle Weser, with WALDECK on the Fulda; also MECKLENBURG STRELITZ and MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN east of the lower Elbe, and BRUNSWICK between the middle Elbe and Weser, ruled by a family from which our Queen also descends, whose antiquity even the research of Gibbon found it difficult fully to trace. In central Germany we have also the small states of HESSE DARMSTADT, SAXE MEININGEN, SAXE COBURG, SAXE ALTENBURG, and SAXE WEIMAR. The two delightful towns of COBURG and GOTHA are united under the present Duke of Saxe Coburg, Prince Albert's brother, and will descend to the Duke of Edinburgh. WEIMAR was long the residence of Goethe and Schiller. To these must be added the very small states of ANHALT, SCHWARZBURG, and REUSS; with the free cities of HAMBURG, LÜBECK,

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and BREMEN. The principality of LUXEMBURG also ranks as a German state ; but at present forms part of the territories of Holland, and was in 1867 declared by the Great Powers to be neutral in case of war.



## CHAPTER VII.

### SWITZERLAND.

SWITZERLAND is bounded by Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria on the north, by Italy and Savoy on the south, by the Vorarlberg and Tyrol on the east, and by France on the west. It is 200 miles long by 140 broad; its area is about 15,000 square miles, and its population about 3,000,000. It consists of twenty-two states called Cantons; each canton has the independent management of its local affairs, and sends deputies for matters of common interest to the 'Bundes-Versammlung' at Berne. The constitutions of the cantons vary much; those of Glarus, Appenzel, Unterwalden, and Uri have always carried measures by universal and direct suffrage of all the inhabitants.\* Others delegate their legislative power to a 'Grosser Rath' or elective council. Since 1863 six cantons have given up the second system and returned to the more primitive arrangement.

\* \* The origin of the confederacy was a bond made in 1298 by the Forest Cantons of Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden, to resist the tyranny of Albert of Hapsburg, who was con-

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\* Sometimes a single Sunday afternoon spent in deliberation settles all the state affairs in the canton for the year.

stantly striving to reduce them to the condition of family domains, instead of free dependencies of the Empire of Germany. Fresh oppressions shortly after this led to a revolt; they were anxious that this should be bloodless, and are said to have been annoyed at Tell's act in shooting the Landvogt Gessler. When, however, Albert's successor attacked them in the pass of Morgarten, they made no difficulty in driving his cavaliers headlong into the Lake of Egeri below. In 1332 Lucerne was admitted into the confederacy, about twenty years later Zurich, Glarus, Zug, and the powerful Berne; then the continued enmity of Austria drew nearly all the existing states into the confederacy by the end of the fourteenth century. Up to the French Revolution there were singular exceptions to the law of liberty pervading the country; namely, that Berne ruled the Pays de Vaud without allowing its people any share in their own government; that Thurgau was in like manner dependent on the 'eight chief cantons;' and that many districts and towns, as being obtained by conquest, were even less free.

The mountains of Switzerland, with the exception of the Jura, all ramify from the huge, though low, mass of the S. GOTTHARD. From this the High Alps go in a south-west direction, forming two great bastions, the one where MONT BLANC looks out on the valleys of Savoy and France, the other where MONTE ROSA, with the MATTERHORN, WEISSHORN, and several other scarcely inferior peaks, form the finest mountain-group in Europe, with a greater average height than any other part of the Alps. On the west side, again, the S. Gotthard is only slightly separated from the GRIMSEL, whence the BERNESE ALPS follow a line parallel with the western section of the High Alps, thus enclosing the great glacier valley called the VALAIS. This chain, which extends to the Lake of

Geneva, is slightly inferior\* in height to its great neighbour, but exceeds it in breadth; for, as seen from any of the lower mountains on its south edge, it presents the spectacle of an ice-field 27 miles long and 10 broad, with ice cataracts many times the size of Niagara pouring resistlessly down from it, yet shattering and dissolving, pinnacle by pinnacle, long before they reach the lower valleys. Out of it rise here and there the great peaks of the SCHRECKHORN, FINSTERAARHORN, JUNGFRAU, and many others. So high are even the depressions between the various summits in each of these chains, that the Valais has no carriage-road into Italy except the SIMPLON from Brieg to Domo d'Ossola, Lago Maggiore, and Milan; while the Bernese Alps are inviolate, except by mule-paths. From the S. Gotthard spring also the mountains of the TESSIN, the third of the great buttresses projecting into Italy, with the lake and town of LUGANO; as well as the Albula and the other Grison mountains, and the Tödi and Glarnisch ranges forming the east cantons.

The chief water-ways of the country are those of the Rhine and Rhone, which, from sources within a few miles of one another, flow down to the opposite ends of Europe. The glacier of the RHONE, once powerful enough to scoop out the whole of the Valais, and, according to Professor Ramsay, the Lake of Geneva itself, is south of the Grimsel; thence the river descends by a series of rocky shelves past BRIEG, SION, and MARTIGNY, to the gorge of S. MAURICE

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\* Mont Blanc is 15,781 feet high; Monte Rosa, 15,217; the Finsteraarhorn, 14,026; the Jungfrau, 13,761.

and the great lake. The current of the Rhine is directed north-east by its great valley, formed by the Tödi chain on the one side, and the Grison mountains on the other ;\* it then separates the Appenzel mountains from those of the Vorarlberg, passes through the Lake of Constanx, and afterwards between the North Jura and the Black Forest, making fine falls at Schaffhausen ; after Basle it begins the German part of its course. The angle between these mighty streams is bisected by the AAR, which rises north of the Grimsel, and heads for the Jura by the great valley called the HASLI, containing the lakes of BRIENZ and THUN ; but, after passing Berne, is forced to turn north-east, and follow the base of the Jura up to the Rhine, near HAPSBURG.† To nearly the same point comes the REUSS, which rises near the S. Gotthard Pass, and enters at Altdorf the great gap of the Vierwaldstätter See (or Lake of Lucerne), between the mountains of the Forest Cantons and those connected with the Glar-nisch ; as also the LIMMATH, from the Lake of Zurich. Thus the cardinal point of Swiss geography is the existence of these five lines of river and lake communication, which all debouch into the great western

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\* At Sargans there is a break in the chain on the left ; here the Rhine once formed a second great arm, going by the Linth and the lakes of Wallenstadt and Zurich, and so again to the present course. In the floods of 1817 the Rhine sent some of its waters into this arm, creating fear lest it might sweep away Zurich.

† This small place is the origin of the great House of Hapsburg, which, after ruling all Germany for centuries, now contents itself with the Austro-Hungarian empire.

plain at the foot of the Jura, making it possible to carry roads and railways up them to any point desired. That by the Lake of Lucerne and the Reuss is the most important, as by Altdorf and Andermatten it reaches the great S. Gotthard tunnel, which is to give a railway communication between West Germany and Italy, *viâ* Bellinzona and Lago Maggiore, as complete as that which Vienna enjoys by the Sömmering. The Valais route along the Rhone will probably be at least equally frequented when the Simplon is tunnelled, but not till then. The Rheinthal has at all times afforded a great international communication across the fine pass of the SPLÜGEN, from Chur to Chiavenna and the Lake of Como; and the Bernardino from Chur to Bellinzona and Lago Maggiore.

The character of the JURA has been described in Chap. III. Its level ridges are, however, interrupted at one point by the Val Travers, which allows a railway to oblique south-westward to Pontarlier, on the Doubs. This great gorge, occupied at the east end by NEUCHÂTEL, is second in importance to that of Geneva, leading as it does directly to the great railway centre at Dijon. It has been remarked that the east slope of the Jura is covered with blocks and detritus, evidently borne thither from the Alps; indeed their pathways may be distinctly traced down the various great Alpine valleys, and across the plain to the flanks or the Jura. The conclusion is inevitable that the great glaciers once pushed their terminal moraines thus far, after covering the western plain with ice to a depth of 3,000 feet.

Cæsar tells us that the tribes of the Black Forest were attracted into Switzerland by the goodness of the soil; and his remark applies in full at the present day to the great plain under the Jura, whose garden-like cultivation is admirable. To state the cause of this would only be once more to expand Arthur Young's explanation, that the "magic of property" is all-powerful with the husbandman. The great valleys of Lucerne and of the Hasli have also a bright productiveness delightful to behold, yet inferior to that of Zurich, where vines, orchards, trees, and corn-fields make the happiest foreground to the mountains enclosing it. Even in the high region, wherever there are a few yards of level ground, a Swiss farmer will carry earth up to it on his back, as well as liquid manure to enrich it. The very rock ledges on the face of the precipice are not neglected, as hardy mowers swing themselves down by ropes to gather the grass which they have made to grow there. Sometimes even the cattle themselves are taken up ladders to the less accessible pastures. Much of the property of great families, like the Redings of Schwytz, consisted, till recently, of the commissions in the Swiss guards serving in Spain and at Naples, as they did before the Revolution in France; Garibaldi's conquest of Naples has, however, brought to an end these sources of income. The religion is mostly Roman Catholic in the east cantons, Protestant in those of the west.\* Whether the former are

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\* The Catholic states are the Forest Cantons, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg, Soleure, the Valais, and the Tessin. Berne, S. Gall,

always, as is confidently stated, less industrious, orderly, and wealthy than the latter, admits of much question ; in both one and the other the position of the peasantry is decidedly good. In the cantons west of Berne the language is French, except that Freiburg is bilingual ; in the Grisons, the Engadine, and part of the Valais, the 'Romantsch,' a kind of Germanized Italian, is spoken ; and in the Tessin another rude Italian dialect. The remaining cantons speak a rough and antique German.

The chief towns of the country are BERNE, BASLE, ZÜRICH, LUCERNE, NEUCHATEL, and GENEVA. BERNE, the capital, is finely situated on a hill overlooking a fall of the Aar. It was founded as a shelter to the smaller nobles against the tyranny of the greater ; and flourished from the liberal way in which these granted burgher rights to all the inhabitants. It has still in the old town many of the massive Swiss houses of the middle ages. BASLE has also a grand position on the Rhine. It was one of the great cities of the Reformation, and its 44,000 inhabitants now have a great reputation for wealth and industry, combined with much simplicity of manners and economy. There Erasmus taught, and Holbein painted. ZÜRICH is perhaps the most important city in Switzerland. It is situated at the west end of its lake, and is the centre of the Swiss cotton trade, which overspreads the western cantons, and many others ; having also an excellent university,

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Appenzel, Aargau, Thurgau, and the Grisons are mixed. Zurich, Glarus, Basle, Schaffhausen, Neuchatel, and the Pays de Vaud are Protestant.

medical schools, library, and museum. It was under Zwingli in the sixteenth century the metropolis of the 'Reformed' Protestants, as Augsburg was of the Lutherans, and Geneva of the Calvinists. LUCERNE is also at the west end of its lake, and therefore on the S. Gotthard road. Near it is the RIGHI, a mountain composed entirely of fragments traceable, not to the Alps, but to the mountains of Germany. From its top the finest possible view may be obtained (weather permitting) of the Bernese Alps, and the innumerable peaks in front of them. The situation of NEUCHÂTEL has been already described. Its district shares with Geneva the watch trade, and the perils to which, as above stated, that trade is now exposed by American competition. Lastly, GENEVA is most celebrated for what may be called the reign of Calvin there, and the noble hospitality and protection, even to the risk of its own existence, which it afforded to fugitive Protestants of all nations.

Some smaller Swiss towns also deserve mention. Such are, in the Hasli, THUN, INTERLACHEN, and MEYRINGEN. The second of these is the place for idlers in Switzerland, while Meyringen is the town for guides and those who require them, as it communicates at once with the mountains of the Forest Cantons by the fine carriage pass of the Brunig to Stanz on the Lake of Lucerne; with the Bernese Alps by the glacier of Rosenlauri, just above it; with the higher parts of both the great chains by the Grimsel, and with the S. Gotthard and Rheinthal by the Furka Pass. On the Lake of Geneva is the ancient city of



LAUSANNE; near it lived Gibbon, Rousseau, and Voltaire. It now contains a most valuable collection of objects from the 'lake-dwellings,' which, to the number of 200, have been discovered round almost all the lower lakes of Switzerland, and answer exactly to Herodotus' well-known description of those in ancient Pæonia, having been built above the water on wooden platforms supported by piles: at the places where they stood thousands of objects of bone, flint, and metal have been discovered. From Lausanne a railway crosses to Neuchatel by YVERDUN, the home of Pestalozzi and his successors. MARTIGNY, in the Valais, is at the northern descent of the S. Bernard pass from Aosta, in Italy; from it the Col de Balme also crosses to the French valley of CHAMONIX, from the head of which a side view of the whole Mont Blanc range may be seen, with its radiant glaciers descending one after the other nearly to the bank of the Arveiron. Farther up the Valais is SION,\* till lately a walled town with many 'cretins;' the disease has, however, disappeared with the demolition of the walls. From this place an entrance is gained either by way of Visp, or more directly by Evolena, to the glorious valleys of ZERMATT and SAAS, to the Rifel and its views of MONTE ROSA from the north, and to the snow passes of the MONTE MORO and the S. THEODULE leading to Italy. Lastly, far away from all these, to the east of the S. Gotthard, where the

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\* It may be observed here that the German names for Sion, Geneva, Soleure, are Sitten, Genf, Solothurn, respectively.

Inn flows strongly towards Salzburg and the Danube, and where the Bernina Pass points the way to the Adda and the Lake of Como, where also Bergamasque shepherds, with their Lombard dialect, feed their flocks in summer, and Englishmen skate or sit in the sun in winter, is the ENGADINE, with its tourist villages of PONTRESINA, S. MORITZ, and SAMADEN, too small for the crowds who gather to them. This is the chief and most fertile valley of the GRISONS, or 'Grey League,' a canton which established its independence by the great battle of Mals in 1499. Its capital is CHUR.

- Switzerland enjoys the inestimable privilege of neutrality in all wars, disregarded only by the generals of the Revolution and Napoleon I. Since then the only war of any importance has been that of the Sonderbund, in 1847, when the mass of the Swiss people, annoyed at the preference given by the pupils of the Jesuits to the religious or monastic over the civic life, directed the expulsion of the Order from the Catholic Cantons. These claimed to secede from the Confederation rather than obey, but were reduced to compliance by force of arms; and, as a consequence of their defeat, the monastic orders were dissolved throughout the Confederacy. Switzerland also maintains the noble right of sheltering the political exiles of other countries, and, backed by the approval of Europe, has resisted attempts from high quarters to make her modify it.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### AUSTRIA.

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE is bounded on the north by Poland, Prussia, Saxony, and Bavaria; on the east by Russia; on the south by Roumania, Serbia, Albania, Montenegro, the Adriatic, and Italy; on the west by Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Switzerland. Its area is 210,000 square miles; its population 37,000,000.

The mountain chains in its German territory are singularly various and complicated. They have two main divisions—those which belong to the secondary or German ranges mentioned in Chapter I., and those which branch from the Alps: or, what is the same thing, those above the Danube and those below it. The first consist of the Böhmerwald and Moravian mountains, which form, with the Erzgebirge and Riesengebirge, an irregular parallelogram enclosing Bohemia, from which the waters have no escape except by the Saxon Switzerland and Dresden.

The Austrian Alps are best understood by remarking their connection with those of Italy and Switzerland. Thus the Noric Alps, the principal Austrian chain, begin with the noble Orteler (12,000), which towers at the head of the Valteline, with the high pass

of the Stelvio just to the north of it. Beyond this, to the north-east, is the great mass of the Oetzthal mountains, which have permanent habitations at a greater height than any others in Europe. Further in the same direction is the chain of the Hohe Tauern, an outlier of which, just to the south, is the Grosse Glockner, which may be considered as the centre of this mountain region, inasmuch as the chief rivers rise, and the chief secondary chains diverge, in its neighbourhood. Thus the Styrian Alps leave the principal chain near Gastein, and under various names run to the Danube near Presburg; across the north-east part of the chain, called the Sömmering, the railway from Trieste by Laibach and Grätz is carried to Vienna. South of these is the region of the Carnic and Julian Alps, which skirt the Adriatic, and connect with the Dinaric mountains, and whose chief height is the Terglou (8,800).

The spurs and outliers of the Noric Alps constantly intermix with those of another great chain, which, beginning with the Vorarlberg, on the north-east of Switzerland, is continued, first into the Algauer Alps, then into the exquisite mountain region of Salzburg and the Salzkammergut, and at last blends with the north-east spurs of the Noric Alps to form the Wienerwald in the neighbourhood of Vienna.

Lastly, the chief Hungarian mountains are the Carpathians, which, with the Styrian Alps, form the gorge at Presburg through which the Danube flows; and then, after marking the whole boundary of Hungary and Transylvania, return to the Danube, near

Widin, forming there the powerful rapids of the 'Iron Gate.'

The Danube, after leaving the Bavarian territory at Passau, flows between the northern and the southern systems just described, the second of which bars it from the Adriatic; so that, after turning the northern and southern Carpathians, it necessarily heads for the Black Sea. For the same reason the Drave and Save, which rise in valleys close towards the west but open eastward, naturally become tributaries of the Danube, the course of the former being between the Styrian and Carnic, and that of the latter between the Carnic and Julian Alps. So the Inn, which rises in the Swiss valley of the Engadine, flows between the Noric and Algauer Alps to the Danube at Passau; while the Salza, Enns, and Mur, rising near the Glockner, all flow into the Danube or its tributaries. The Adige, on the other hand, springs from the Austrian Tirol.

- The Austrian mountains offer a great contrast to those of Switzerland, from the depth of the indentations between them, and the consequent ease with which travellers can pass from one district or river basin to another. Thus the Brenner pass, between the Oetzthal and the Glockner, is only 4,600 feet high, and a railway to Vienna has been easily carried across it; the Sömmering is barely 3,500 feet above the sea. Again, the river Drave and the Rienz, a tributary of the Adige, rise actually in the same valley (called the Pusterthal); so that Eastern and Western Europe may be said to meet at this point. So again the road from Innsbrück by the Vorarlberg to Lindau and Constanza has always been a great and easy line of European trade. Nowhere is there anything like the difficulty of the Stelvio, S. Gotthard, or Splügen routes.

Of the 37,000,000 who inhabit the empire, 19,000,000 are Slavonians, 5,500,000 Magyars or Hungarians, and 9,000,000 Germans. From this division of race, and from the jealousy felt by the three great sections for one another, great danger arises to Austria as a government.

\*.\* This danger consists in the possibility that any one of the three constituents of Austria's population, or even all of them, may some time choose to escape from her dominion. Hungary, though mostly loyal-minded, wished in 1849 to declare herself independent. The Slavonian provinces of Croatia and Slavonia, and even the kingdom of Bohemia, seem not indisposed to join a Pansclavonic federation, if any such came into being. Perhaps even the 9,000,000 Germans may some time gravitate towards the powerful empire of the North. Austria has, till recently, found what may, by a stretch of terms, be called 'safety' in the 'divide et impera' principle—using, for instance, in 1848 Jellachich and his Croats to put down the revolt of Hungary—but has since 1866, by a policy as completely as possible the opposite of this, sought to base her security on the much firmer foundation of good government. With this in view, she adopted in the year after her great overthrow the 'Beust Constitution,' according to which the German provinces have been levelled up to the time-honoured franchises of Hungary, the Reichsrath of the former and the Diet of the latter managing the affairs each of their own kingdom, and choosing committees to act jointly in matters of common interest, such as foreign affairs, and those of the army and navy. Besides this, many provinces have separate assemblies for the management of matters purely local.

The decidedly German provinces of Austria are the TIROL, with UPPER AUSTRIA and LOWER AUSTRIA, of which the two latter are thrust forward along the

Danube, like a wedge penetrating into the midst of the non-German populations. The TIROL, with the VORARLBERG, forms a triangle 130 miles each way, two of the vertices being at the lakes of Garda and Constanx, and the third near Salzburg. It contains the head-waters of the ADIGE, the middle course of the INN, and the whole of the EISACH. Along these rivers are two important Alpine passes, both maintained by Austria up to 1866, with a view to the control of the Italian dominion which she held till then. The BRENNER goes by the Eisach and Adige to Trent, and thence to Verona and Venice; the STELVIO was before 1859 Austria's road for a direct march from Méran, by the upper Adige and Adda, on Milan, by way of Bormio, Sondrio, and the Lake of Como. The capital of the Tirol is INNSBRUCK, at the German foot of the Brenner; BRIKEN, BOTZEN, TRENT, and ROVEREDO, are on the south or Italian slope. BREGENZ, in the Vorarlberg, is the Austrian harbour on the lake of Constanx. The Tyrolese have in high perfection the South German qualities of kindness, hospitality, and politeness; their loyalty to Austria was in 1809 (as it still is) so great that, under Andreas Höfer, they ventured to withstand the whole power of Napoleon, who had promised to annex them to Bavaria. This patriot was shot at Mantua, in the same year, and is buried at Innsbrück.

UPPER AUSTRIA begins with the delightful valley of the Salza, and the mountain group of the SALZKAMMERGUT. Here is SALZBURG, the jewel of all Germany as regards beauty of position; it has also been called

the German Rome, from the abundance of its religious monuments. Near the Glockner are the baths of GASTEIN, where important meetings of sovereigns have so often been held of late. The capital of the province is LINZ, important because the Danube valley is there intersected by the great road leading from the Brenner to Bohemia, the Elbe, and North Germany. LOWER AUSTRIA (between the small rivers Enns and Leitha, and also extending beyond the Danube) contains VIENNA, the capital. Above this, at Krems, the river forms remarkable rapids, near which is the castle of DÜRRENSTEIN, where Richard Cœur de Lion was imprisoned ; below the city it widens into a number of small and broken channels.

\*.\* Vienna has been at different periods of its history a bulwark, first against the early Hungarians, then against the Turks, who besieged it in 1529 and 1683. This partly accounts for its position ; but it is also on two great intersecting lines of traffic—that of the Danube and Rhine already described, and the hardly less important one from the Adriatic to North Germany, which turned the East Alps much as the railway from Trieste to Vienna now does, by Laibach, Grätz, and the Sömmering. It is now a city of 1,000,000 inhabitants, and famous for its manufactures, its art collections, its fine esplanades along the disused walls, and the forest-clad mountains in the neighbourhood. It was originally built nearly two miles from the Danube, probably from the necessity of avoiding the marshy ground on the banks. Where its suburbs reach the river is the Isle of Lobau, at which Napoleon effected, with immense difficulty, his passage of the Danube, in 1809.

South of these three provinces are STYRIA, CARINTHIA, CARNIOLA, and ISTRIA ; where the German



language is struggling with Slavonian and Italian. The capital of Styria is Grätz on the Mur; those of the three others are KLAGENFURT, LAIBACH, and TRIEST respectively. The last of these towns, from its connection with the Sömmering railway, is the chief seaport for East Germany, and is sometimes called the 'southern Hamburg.' A little west of it is the ISONZO, which in part of its lower course forms the Italian frontier.

In the northern and eastern provinces of the monarchy German is not the language of the people. These begin with BOHEMIA, the boundaries of which have already been described. The chief river in it is the ELBE, of which the EGER and MOLDAU are the largest tributaries. Its capital is the ancient and picturesque city of PRAG on the Moldau, near its junction with the Elbe. Other Bohemian towns are EGER, where Wallenstein was assassinated in 1634, TABOR, the entrenched camp of Ziska and the Hussites in the fifteenth century, when in anger for the murder of their master at the Council of Constance they vowed not to spare the life of any priest or monk; KÖNIGSGRATZ, where in 1866 Austria was driven from the German Confederation by the crushing defeat of Sadowa; and the two celebrated watering-places of KARLSBAD and TÖPLITZ. Near Leitmeritz are the silver mines of JOACHIMSTHAL; the words 'thaler,' 'talaro,' and 'dollar' are only abbreviations of 'Joachimsthaler,' from these pieces being first coined there. On the east frontier of Bohemia is MORAVIA, the chief towns of which are

OLMUTZ, most celebrated as a state prison (for Lafayette and others), and BRUNN, near which is AUSTERLITZ, where Napoleon overthrew the forces of the Monarchy in 1805.

\* \* Bohemia is said to be discontented at her inequality with Hungary under the new constitution, and has even at times hoped for independence. "If she obtained this," says Mr. Grant Duff, "it is not more certain that the Moldau falls into the Elbe than that her Slavonic language and nationality would be overwhelmed by the advance of the German populations from the north."

East of these provinces is GALLICIA, Austria's share of the spoil at the partitions of Poland. This is a region of large corn-growing plains, the produce of which goes by the Vistula to Dantzic; it contains also the head-waters of the DNIESTER. Its chief town is LEMBURG, and near the source of the Vistula is CRACOW, which was first the capital of Poland, and then a small independent republic, but, on the demand of Russia, was annexed in 1846 to the Austrian territories.

South of Galicia is the kingdom of Hungary, covering more than a third of the whole Austrian territory, and very valuable from its corn and vines, as well as from its supplies of gold, silver, copper, and lead. To the crown of St. Stephen, as that of Hungary is called, belong also TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, and CROATIA. Hungary proper consists of a great plain bounded on all sides by the Carpathians: the principal river, next to the Danube, is the THEISS, whose branches, of which the MAROS is the chief,

water almost the whole country east of the Danube. The district between the parallel courses of the Lower Theiss and Danube is covered with marshes ; in the midst of these, near SZEGEDIN, the Hungarian army, under Görgey, was forced in 1849 to surrender to the Russians and Austrians, thus ending the rebellion before noticed. As much besides of Hungary is in like manner marshy, the principal towns of the country lie along the Danube. These are PRESBURG and BUDA-PESTH ; the former was the early coronation place of the Austrian Emperors as kings of Hungary, the latter is now the capital ; the two cities of which it is composed have a joint population of 260,000, and lie on opposite sides of the Danube, connected by a fine suspension bridge. From PETERWARDEIN (the place where Prince Eugene's victory in 1716 put an end to the Turks as an aggressive power), the country eastward bears the name of the *Militärgrenze* ; all the families there, except in some of the towns, having been bound to serve at any time against the Turks in case of invasion, and holding their property on this tenure. Of TRANSYLVANIA the Upper Maros is the chief river, and HERMANSTADT the capital. The country has important salt-pits ; and on the Upper Maros considerable quantities of gold are found.

As Austria, most fortunately for herself, lost her Italian dominions in 1859 and 1866, her only territories yet unmentioned are the thoroughly Slavonic provinces of CROATIA, SCLAVONIA, and DALMATIA. The relation of the two first to the monarchy has been already spoken of ; they now seem contented with the

terms on which they are admitted into the Diet, Hungary having given up the audacious claim of 1848, that all speeches there should be in the Magyar language. The capital of Croatia is AGRAM, and of Slavonia SEMLIN, on the Danube, close to where the Save enters it, and in sight of Belgrade.

Lastly, the long strip of Dalmatia is enclosed between the Dinaric mountains and the sea. In this are the ports of FIUME, RAGUSA, and CATTARO, important as opening a near way for Austrian goods into Bosnia and the other northern provinces of the peninsula. RAGUSA was once a trading republic so important that the word 'argosy' is said to be a pronunciation of 'Ragusan,' and so unquiet that its chief magistrate was elected only for a term of one month. The town of next importance is CATTARO, standing at the extremity of a winding arm of the sea of great beauty, called the Bocche di Cattaro. It was given in 1815 to the Montenegrins, in reward for their exertions in expelling the French occupation, but afterwards withdrawn in exchange for a Russian pension of £4,700. Above it a steep ascent, called the 'Scala di Cattaro,' leads up to CETTIGNE, the capital of Montenegro, appearing from above as if suspended over the streets and squares of the town below. By the Treaty of Berlin Austria obtained a protectorate, which may turn into a permanent annexation, of Bosnia and the Herzegovina; as these districts, however, belong to the Balkan peninsula, they are best described in connexion with it. Her territory was also carried along the coast, so as to include Spizza.

## CHAPTER IX.

### BELGIUM. HOLLAND.

BELGIUM lies between Holland, France, and Germany, with an area of 11,372 square miles, and a population of more than 5,000,000. In spite of its small size, and of the considerable portion of its surface which is unproductive, it is one of the most important industrial regions in the world; while, at the same time, it is more strongly Roman Catholic than any other country of Europe.

It has at least four well-marked natural divisions. The first of these is the hill region. This is the continuation of the French Ardennes, which with its prolongations, the Famenne, the Condroz, and the Pays d'Herve, extends over much of the provinces of Namur and Liège, as well as over the Dutch province of Luxemburg. North of this, in the Belgian part of Limburg and the east of Antwerp, is the Campine, an almost desert tract extending from Hasselt, the capital of Belgian Limburg, to the neighbourhood of Mechlin. West of this, again, are the provinces of East and West Flanders, a great part of which was gained by perpetual struggles with the sea and the marshes, conducted with so much vigour that hardly any of the rivers now flow in their natural beds, but have been confined to artificial canals. Besides these there are

the heaths of South Brabant, and the islands of the Meuse and Scheldt estuary.

The only great rivers in the country are the MEUSE and SCHELDT. After entering the territory from Givet, the Meuse, instead of rounding the Ardennes country to the east, makes its way right across it by the help of a great fault in the strata. Passing DINANT, once so celebrated for its work in copper, it then receives at NAMUR the river Sambre, and adopts its direction instead of its own; after this, by way of LIEGE and the Dutch fortress of MÄSTRICHT (*Mosae Trajectus*), it makes its great curve through Holland to join the Rhine. The Scheldt enters Belgium near Tournay, and reaches the great estuary after passing Ghent and Antwerp; one of its tributaries is the Dyle, on which are the cities of Louvain and Mechlin. The small river Iser, on which Bruges stands, has gradually become so completely closed that ships cannot reach Damm, or even Sluys, which were formerly its ports, far less the city itself, as in still earlier times.

BRUSSELS justly claims to be the 'gay capital' of South Brabant and of Belgium; though central, it has few other advantages of position. Its population is not less than 400,000, and continually increases. It has many fine buildings, chief among them the Hôtel-de-Ville, before which Egmont and Horn died; also a vigorous university, proud of its modern spirit. Just south of it is the Forest of Soignies, about eight miles in width; and beyond this the battlefields of Quatre Bras, Ligny, and Waterloo.

But several other Belgian cities outdo Brussels in

historic fame. Among them is BRUGES (48,000), once the chief depôt of the Hanseatic League, and the heart of European commerce. Its railway and canal to the sea at Ostend have brought it back little of its ancient prosperity; its principal employment being now lace-making. GHENT (120,000) is still an important city, having 20,000 workmen employed in cotton factories, besides much inland navigation; but its present calm contrasts greatly with its turbulent strength in the fourteenth and following centuries, when, with a population of 200,000, it freed itself under the Artevelds from the Earls of Flanders, and afterwards took a prominent, though unsuccessful, part in the revolt of the Netherlands against Philip II. MECHLIN and LOUVAIN (each about 34,000), with their magnificent townhalls and quiet streets, offer a similar contrast; the latter aims at counteracting by its church university the influences of the too-liberal Brussels. So Antwerp (130,000) has but a shadow of its former greatness, when it succeeded to the wealth of the Hanseatic League, made the sovereign swear to observe its charters, and assembled 5,000 merchants on its exchange, and 2,500 ships in its docks; in fact, it has never recovered from the effects of its horrible siege by Alexander of Parma in 1585. Other considerable towns near the French frontier are, in West Flanders NIEUWPORT, founded in the twelfth century, when the sea destroyed Lombardzyde, and YPRES with the grandest of all Belgian townhalls; in Hainault, the capital MONS (to be presently spoken of), and the very ancient city of TOURNAY, with its wonderfully beautiful and varied church architecture.

\*. It will be remarked that the Dutch territory encroaches on that of Belgium in both the west and east. For Dutch Flanders extends some miles south of the Scheldt estuary ; so that the nearest place at which Ghent can reach the sea for commercial purposes by a canal is the Dutch port of Terneuzen. So, on the east side, not only does the Dutch Limburg extend in a long strip as far as the boundary of Liège ; but the Dutch fortress of Mästricht, now dismantled, is on the left, or Belgian side of the Meuse. The reason for the last fact is that, when the revolution of 1830 separated Belgium from the Netherlands, the King of Holland steadfastly refused to part with this fortress, which his troops had just defended with signal valour and success. The Duchy of Luxemburg is at present united to Holland as a domain of the house of Orange-Nassau, to which the King of the Netherlands belongs.

A glance at a railway map of Belgium is enough to show the activity prevailing in the country. This is partly agricultural ; in the west provinces in particular, the surface is enriched by continually drawing on a subsoil rich in marine deposits. So admirably is this managed that large tracts, which were once barren sea-sand, have now become profusely fertile, both as fields and as gardens. Yet, as we have seen, so much of the land is still unproductive, that the country would be a poor one without its great coal-measures. These are principally on the great line of strata which passes, as remarked in Chapter III., from Valenciennes in France to Liège. This makes Mons (130,000) and Charleroi (16,000) great places of industry, exporting much coal to France ; Liège itself has a population of 180,000, and competes vigorously with England in iron castings and the manufacture of locomotives. Still more could be done in this way



but for the exhaustion of the Belgian iron-mines, which are now worked only in Luxemburg. The country also produces large quantities of zinc, and has considerable manufactures of wool, cotton, and flax, besides the old trades of lace and straw-plait. Its sea-carriage is chiefly done by English vessels, the quantity of Belgian shipping being actually on the decline.

- \*.\* The languages of Belgium are various. The Walloon, a dialect derived from Latin, much as French or Wallachian are, but showing, according to Diez, marks of a high antiquity, prevails in the Meuse basin. On the other hand, the Flemish, a kind of German, belongs to the western provinces, and has of late tried to strengthen itself by adopting Dutch orthography. In the great towns, however, French is the universal language, though pronounced in an un-Parisian manner. The strong Catholicism of the country, which was the chief cause for its separation from Holland in 1830, produces one of its greatest dangers at present, from the high-handedness of the Church party towards those who do not submit to it, in which clear-headed observers think they see the germs of future and perhaps very stormy revolutions.

HOLLAND (otherwise called the Netherlands) is bounded on the west and north by the German Ocean, on the east by the Empire of Germany, and on the south by Belgium. Its area is 20,527 square miles, its population 3,500,000. It has no mountains, or even hills, except in the outlying territories of Limburg and Luxemburg; its chief rivers are the Lower Rhine from near Cleves to the sea, and the Meuse from Mästricht downwards; it also commands most of the Scheldt estuary. Of the rivers en-

tirely within its limits the Yssel, a branch of the Rhine flowing into the Zuyder Zee, is the most important. Near it is the Vecht, also flowing into the same sea.

\*.\* The geography of Holland is one diverging from all usual laws. The rivers, as M. Esquiros has said, are suspended above the heads of the inhabitants; large towns stand 11, or even 17, feet below the high-water mark of the sea close to them; parts of the soil have been in turn invaded, surrendered, and recaptured by the waters; and much of the coast line bears the appearance of a wreck. The existence of the country dates from the remote times when the Rhine, then a much more powerful river than at present, threw out, with the help of the Meuse and Scheldt, a great delta, reaching far west of the present coast line all along. Its chief arm seems then to have followed the track of the present Yssel into the lake Flevus, which occupied part of the space now covered by the Zuyder Zee, and thence to have gone by a second channel in the same direction to the German Ocean. When, in common with the other two rivers, it lost much of its volume and force, it was unable any longer to make good what it had gained from the sea. Accordingly the coast line was fearfully shattered by the waves and winds from the north-west; and all the convex part of the delta was swept away, leaving, however, a sign of its former existence in the shallowness of the German Ocean noticed in Chapter II. Nor was this all; much of the remaining foreshore on the west and north-west of the country has been fretted into a line of outlying islands, such as the Texel, and those of Zeeland; while the mainland within it has had a precarious existence, often seeming on the point of being submerged. From the earliest date the inhabitants have guarded against this by strengthening the barriers of sandhills formed, as in the French Landes, along the coast, and by constructing, where it was necessary, a series of great dykes; the whole of Friesland, for

instance, is surrounded by a triple row of piles driven to keep out the sea. The dykes, of which there are no less than 2,000 miles in Holland, are made with the utmost strength; in the older ones the piles are faced with nail-heads, and supported at the base by blocks of Norwegian granite. When the face is swept by a dangerous current, this is kept at a distance by sinking large rafts of branches weighted with stones. Within the system of dykes the land is pumped dry by numberless wind and steam-mills. Thus the disasters of recent times have been less terrible than those of old. In 1282, for instance, the waves burst across the rich and populous isthmus north of the Flevus, engulfing hundreds of villages, and leaving only a shallow and tempestuous sea to show where they had been. In the same century the Dollart invaded the mouth of the Ems, annihilating another fertile and densely-peopled district. On some occasions, too, the river-floods are, for a time, almost equally destructive. This is especially the case when they come down the Rhine from above before the surface is thawed below. Then the ice collects in enormous masses, cutting razor-like through the dykes which confine the stream, and spreading desolation over whole provinces. Yet, in spite of all this, the country prospers, industry and economy repair all damage, and in a few years all trace of such a catastrophe disappears.

The Rhine, on entering the Dutch territory near Cleves, at once divides into two great arms, the Rhine proper and the Waal.\* The latter falls into

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\* It seems surprising that the great name of 'Rhine' should be taken from the main stream in Holland and given to one of minor importance. It should be remembered, however, that the names of the Waal and Yssel are the Celtic words 'uhel' and 'isel,' meaning 'high' and 'low;' the Waal being the most, and the Yssel the least 'up the country' of the streams composing the Rhine; so that these names must mean 'the highest Rhine' and 'the lowest Rhine' respectively.

the Meuse (Maas) estuary below Gorcum, and thence into the sea ; the Rhine soon again divides, one of its arms going on towards Rotterdam, under the name of the Leck, but falling just above that city into an old mouth of the Maas, which flowed from Grave to the left of its present course northwestward through the islands; the other branch passing Leyden, and reaching the sea through the great sluices of Katdyk. Accordingly, these streams and the Yssel share among them the Rhine waters, which follow one or the other principally according to circumstances. When they were thus named, the northern branches were probably predominant ; and we know from Tacitus that the Romans built, at the point where the great arms first separate, a dam to turn the waters from the Waal to them ; their object being to push further north the waters which defended the Batavi. The same dam was destroyed by Civilis, the hostile Batavian, in order to drive the stream back to the channel of the Waal. Then again, during great floods much of the waters of the Rhine go along the channel of the Yssel, which is also covered in its whole length and to a great distance from the banks with blocks brought down by the ice from Switzerland, showing what an important branch this must at one time have been. In something the same way as the Rhine, the Scheldt has also two mouths, one on each side of the islands of Beveland and Walcheren.

The country contains in the northern peninsula the provinces of FRIESLAND, GRONINGEN, DRENTHE, and OVERYSSEL ; in its centre NORTH AND SOUTH HOL-

LAND, UTRECHT, GUELDERLAND, NORTH BRABANT, and ZEALAND; and in the south the outlying LIMBURG (east of the Meuse) and LUXEMBURG. The capital is AMSTERDAM, in North Holland, with a population of 320,000. The city is built upon 39 islands of the inlet called the Y; the houses being supported on trees driven in with the branches downwards. Vessels reach it not generally by the Zuyder Zee, but by the North Holland Canal, which is carried through the whole province to the Helder; a shorter one is now in progress. Besides its maritime trade, it monopolises that of diamond cutting, which is entirely in the hands of Jews. Near it is, or rather was, the Lake of Haarlem; for it has been drained because its waters threatened destruction to the shore of the Y, and therefore to Amsterdam itself. The people are now thinking of the far bolder enterprise of draining part at least of the Zuyder Zee. The city of HAARLEM is famous for its siege and relief in 1572, and not less so now-a-days for its galleries, museums, and bulb-gardens. ROTTERDAM (136,000) is what Hood called it, "a sort of vulgar Venice," being intersected at every point by salt-water canals, and having shipping in every street; it has a great trade, chiefly with England. The seat of government is THE HAGUE, the largest (90,000) and one of the most beautiful of 'villages;' its art museums and picture galleries are excellent. Near it is DELFT (25,000), where William the Silent, the author of Dutch liberty, lived and died; it is celebrated for pottery of a plain kind. LEYDEN and

UTRECHT (66,000) have great Universities; the first was founded by William the Silent, as the only compensation desired by the inhabitants for their fearful sufferings in the Spanish siege of 1573.

The province of ZEELAND is chiefly a collection of islands formed by the Rhine branches and the Scheldt. So low-lying are the islands, and so encompassed with dykes, that in sailing among them no part of their surface can be seen. The most important of them is WALCHEREN. On it is MIDDELBURG, once great as a maritime town; there both the microscope and telescope were discovered. But FLUSHING, on the same island, has now become much more important; it aims at intercepting the trade of Antwerp with England and other countries, and in pursuance of this object has established an excellent line of steam-boats to Queensborough, on the Thames. Two other ports which have lost their former pre-eminence are BERGEN-OP-ZOOM, in North Brabant, and HELVOETSLUYS, on the Land van Voorne. From the last of these places William III. sailed for his English expedition.

The northern provinces, between the Ems and the German Ocean, contributed not a little to the defence of Holland in early times by their shield of morasses. These are now of immense value for fuel. At the city of GRONINGEN the industry of the inhabitants has formed in the midst of a barren heath a port communicating with the sea by two great canals. The chief town of Friesland is LEEUWARDEN. The people still speak the Frisian language, and show

by their manner that they remember the old charter, that they shall be free "as long as the winds blow, and the waters rise."

- \*.\* Successful against the generals of Philip II., and after that against the unprincipled invasion of Louis XIV., the Dutch, in common with the rest of Europe, fell under the dominion of Napoleon. On his fall, William of Nassau was raised to the throne of the Netherlands, as representing the great house of Orange, to which they owed their liberty, and which on all emergencies had held the chief magistracy or stadholderate. The new kingdom included not only Holland, but Belgium, an arrangement which has had the fate of most of those made in 1815. Suspicions soon arose that the Protestant king was inclined to tamper with the religion of the Roman Catholic Belgians. Accordingly in 1830 a revolution took place, in which, by the help of France, Belgium obtained its independence, and Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg became its constitutional king. Of all the countries of Europe, Holland is perhaps most one in spirit with ourselves, as the Dutch are not only traders like ourselves, but read our literature, and follow our politics attentively. A remarkable coincidence of Dutch feeling with our own was the deep indignation felt when the Pope lately ventured to restore the four great bishoprics of the country, the very name of which reminded them of the fierce tyranny shaken off in 1609. Much of the Dutch colonial empire has been lost. They still, however, retain the island of Java, with much of Borneo and Sumatra; besides which they have the Celebes and Moluccas, and part of the coast of New Guinea.

## CHAPTER X.

### THE CIMBRIC PENINSULA. SCANDINAVIA.

SCANDINAVIA contains the three countries of DENMARK, NORWAY, and SWEDEN. Norway, up to 1814 a part of the Danish monarchy, was in that year transferred to Sweden, which had acted vigorously against Napoleon.

DENMARK possessed till 1864 nearly the whole of the Cimbric peninsula. In that year the province of Schleswig-Holstein was conquered by the combined forces of Prussia and Austria, and ultimately attached to Prussia. This loss, though serious, has been compensated by the withdrawal of the disturbing German element from the Danish territory, which is now at one in language and feeling. Therefore the Danish territory now includes only JUTLAND on the peninsula, with FUNEN, ZEALAND, and the smaller islands of Langeland, Laaland, Falster, and Moen, with Bornholm, in the Baltic. Its area is 14,500 square miles; its population nearly 2,000,000, the latter having doubled within the century.

Jutland is a continuation of the North German plain, its hills being only about 500 feet in height. It has no rivers of any importance, but the Lim-fiord



runs across its northern part, with AALBORG (12,000) near its east end. Other towns are AARHUUS (20,000) and VIBORG (7,000). Much more important to Denmark are the islands. Beyond the Little Belt, a shallow and dangerous strait, is FUNEN, an island cultivated throughout like a garden, its chief towns being ODENSE (20,000) and SVENBORG (7,000). East of this is Zealand, between the Great Belt and the Sound. Where it comes nearest to the Norwegian coast is Elsinore; here the 'Sound dues' (redeemed in 1857 by a payment of £350,000 from the maritime nations) used to be collected under the guns of the place. South of this is the very striking city of COPENHAGEN (250,000), opposite the isle of Amager. Half the Danish navigation is from its port; and it is the centre of the northern telegraphic system. Nothing can be more interesting than its great museum of Northern Antiquities, or the monument to Thorwaldsen, in which his finest works have been placed. Near it is ROESKILD, once the capital of Denmark.

The Danes, though speaking a language akin to German, hold very much aloof from the German nation. Like the Dutch, they have a peculiar kindness for England, which has not been destroyed by our having waged war against them in 1801 and 1807 on hardly defensible principles. These attacks they are said to attribute, not to the English people, but to our ministers at the time. Their artists and men of science and letters are distinguished, witness the names of Thorwaldsen, Oersted, Madwig. The dependencies of Denmark are the FARÖ Islands, ICELAND, and part

of Greenland, with the three islands of S. Thomas, S. Croix, and S. John, in the West Indies.

NORWAY has an area of 127,729 square miles, and a population of 1,770,000. Although Christiania is on the parallel of the Shetland Isles (60° N.), and Norway extends to 71° N., 9° within the Arctic Circle, yet such is the effect of the Gulf Stream upon its climate that ground-ice is unknown upon the west coast, although the whole of the Baltic is sometimes frozen. Norway is almost entirely covered by its great mountain chains, the axis of which, however, lies outside of the peninsula, and passes through the Lofoden Islands, and not, as often marked on maps, along the Swedish boundary. They are classed under the names of the Kjölen, from latitude 62° to the North Cape; the Dovre, running north-east and south-west for about 200 miles at the south end of the Kjölen, and the Hardanger mountains occupying the south-west region, and acting as a bulwark to North Germany against the Atlantic. The highest peaks are in the last of these ranges, but they do not rise much above 8,000 feet. But any inferiority on this point is more than compensated by the grandeur of the fiords which the combined power of the sea and the glaciers has excavated all along the west coast. The largest of these are the Hardanger and Sogne Fiords, which wind inland more than 100 miles, with arms like those of the Lake of Lucerne, all most striking from the scenery around them, and with the finest waterfalls in Europe. Another charm of Norway is its fringe of islands, often quite concealing the coast. Among the Lofodens, in

particular, the channels seem suddenly to open in the face of perpendicular rocks as the steam-boat gets close to them. The chief rivers are the Lougen and Glommen, both of which rise near Snaehatten in the Dovre and unite below the Mjösen Lake, and the Drammen which makes one arm of the Christiania Fiord.

CHRISTIANIA (113,000), the capital, and the seat of the 'Storthing,' derives its name from Christian IV., who founded it in 1624, violently transporting to it the inhabitants of other towns, and encouraging the resort of strangers. In the same way CHRISTIANSAND, near the Naze of Norway, was founded as a rival to the more ancient port of STAVANGER. BERGEN (33,000) is the depôt for trade with the west coast. Its steam-boats supply necessities to the hardy fishermen of the coast, not less than 16,000 in number, and to the northern mining settlements, and return with salt fish piled high on the decks and even fastened to the rigging. The trade of Bergen with England and other countries is considerable, yet its inhabitants are regarded as the 'Norsest of Norsemen.' North of the Dovre, in latitude 64° N., on its own great fiord, is Trondjem; nowhere else in Europe, except at Archangel, is there civilization, patriotism, and hospitality so far from the equator. Above this there are only casual settlements, such as Tromsjö, opposite the Lofodens, and Hammerfest, near the North Cape. Some of them were founded by English companies for copper-mining purposes.

SWEDEN has an area of 168,000 square miles, and

a population of 4,000,000 (both of them exclusive of Norway). It consists entirely of the spurs from the Norwegian mountains, with some level country between them and the Baltic; and its frontier is marked by a series of small lakes along the mountain bases, which are forerunners of the thousands with which the lower region is covered. One of the most striking points of Swedish geography is the connection between the two sides of the peninsula through Lakes Wenern and Wetteren and their canals. This almost direct waterway from Stockholm to Göteborg is supposed to have been the outlet of the Baltic in times when the Cattegat did not yet exist, as in both of them the bottom is much below the sea-level. Most of the Swedish rivers, such as the Lulea, the Umea, and others, widen into lakes for a great part of their course; but they are hardly navigable at all, in spite of their perennial flow.

The beautiful capital of Sweden is STOCKHOLM (166,000), built on a number of islands and capes between lake Maelar and the sea. As its port is closed by the ice for several months in each year, another has been planned at NYNÄS, on the Baltic, to be united with Stockholm by a railway. Like Copenhagen, Stockholm has an admirable museum of Northern Antiquities. It is surrounded by many agreeable towns, the chief of which is UPSALA (14,000), the university of Linnæus. It was once the capital of Sweden, and has the finest church in Scandinavia, next to that of Trondjem. North of this is DANNEMORA, whose iron was long exclusively used at Sheffield for finer work. Like

Bergen, Stockholm has a large trade with the north of the country, collecting from the ports on the Gulf of Bothnia large quantities of timber and pitch. The second city of Sweden is GÖTEBORG (72,000), on the Cattegat, important as an entrepôt for all Swedish exports. It is distinguished for the bravery of its fishermen and mariners, and has gained itself a name in late years by the stand which it has made against intemperance.

After much investigation it has been settled that both the Cimbric and Swedish peninsulas are gradually rising at the north end. In the latter the axis of motion is in latitude  $56^{\circ} 40'$  (that of Kalmar); at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia the rise is estimated at 5 feet in a century, and the south coast has been depressed in about the same degree. The rise of Jutland is probably more rapid.

Lastly, ICELAND, the great dependency of Denmark, is something larger than Ireland, but has a population of only 70,000. Scarcely a tenth of it admits of cultivation; on this, however, a considerable quantity of sheep and cattle are fed. Yet the people could not subsist on their own productions, and would have starved during our war with Denmark in 1801, had not our government, on the representation of Sir Joseph Banks, allowed necessaries to be sent there as in time of peace. The whole centre of the country is one mass of volcanic desolation; along the coasts and inland from Reykjavik, the capital, a number of villages are found. In the south-west of the country is the great Hecla, and in the centre there are many other active craters; a single eruption has been known to

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send out a quantity of lava equal to the whole mass of Etna. The glory of the Geysers seems to be departing, as their bursts now occur much less frequently. Iceland has an intelligent population, and even men of learning; but her fame will always rest upon the times when she offered an asylum to the strongest hearts in Scandinavia, to all, in fact, who would not endure the tyranny of encroaching kings. A population thus selected was naturally filled with genius and poetry; hence the noble literature of the Eddas, of which Mr. Morris is the English interpreter. Hence also the old Norse language has maintained itself there with little change, while in the rest of Scandinavia it has formed the separate languages of Denmark and Sweden.

## CHAPTER XI.

### RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

THE great Empire of Russia has in Europe the enormous area of 1,806,000 square miles, with a population of 74,000,000; giving an average of only 40 to each square mile.\* It is bounded on the west by Sweden and the Baltic, the German Empire, Hungary, Roumania, and the Black Sea. Its eastern boundary has been described in Chapter I.; the Russians themselves, however, consider the province of Astrakhan to be Asiatic, not European. The greatest length of the country is 2,400 miles, the greatest breadth 1,800. The most important heights in it are the Caucasus and the Ural, the Yaila range in the south of the Crimea, the Jigoulee hills along the lower Volga, and the Valdai between S. Petersburg and Moscow; the whole remainder being one almost unbroken plain. The rivers are numerous and important; the VOLGA rises near Tver, and flows, after an immense curve east and south, through 65 mouths into the Caspian at Astrakhan; its course is not less than 2,200 miles. West of this, the Don forms another

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\* To this has to be added about 12,000,000 for the Asiatic population of Russia.

great curve from near Tula to the Sea of Azof, the convex side of which nearly reaches that of the Volga at Tsaritzin; the DNIEPER rises near the Volga's sources, forming the terrible marshes of Minsk; and the DNIESTER in Gallicia; both falling into the Black Sea. On the Baltic frontier are the NIEMEN, SOUTH DWINA, and NEVA, falling into the Baltic near Memel, Riga, and Cronstadt respectively. In the northern province the NORTH DWINA falls into the White Sea at Archangel; and in the extreme south-east the Ural continues the line of the mountains of the same name to the Caspian, enclosing between itself and the Volga the province of Orenburg and much of that of Astrakhan.

The tribes and languages of Russia in Europe are manifold; but she has over other nations similarly composed, the great advantage that the true Russian population occupies the centre of the country, so as readily to control all other races. The principal of these latter are the FINS, who from Finland and Esthonia eastward once occupied the whole forest country of North Russia, and still hold the chief part of it, mingling, however, with the Russians and learning their language along the courses of the northern rivers. In the 'steppe' country of the south a zone was in like manner inhabited by TARTAR tribes; the remains of these extend down the Volga, from Kasan to the mouth, and then away westward to the Crimea, and even to the Pruth.\* North of these

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\* The three great Tartar Khanates, whose chiefs once ruled all Russia. were those of Kasan, Astrakhan, and the Crimea.



last, on the middle Dnieper, is Little Russia, the chief part of which is the old Ukraine, the chief home of the COSSACKS. Again, the POLES, though conquered by Russia, form the whole population of their own country, and the class of proprietors in Lithuania, where the peasantry, again, are of a quite different stock and language. Similarly in Esthonia, while the language of the people is Finnish, that of the landed proprietors is German, and their church Lutheran.

- The proper, or Sclavonic, Russians are by universal consent a race possessing great abilities. Every northern peasant can do good carpentry with no better tools than an axe and a rough chisel, and all over the country they are able to adopt trade after trade with no appearance of clumsiness in any. They are also musical and fond of stories, with a vein of humour altogether national and peculiar, of which Kriloff's fables are a perfect example. Our officers in the Crimea who had charge of prisoners spoke of them as most docile and kindly-natured; while at the same time they have shown, not only, as in the siege of Sevastopol, a high spirit of patriotism and endurance, but when led as by Paskiewitch in the Asiatic campaign of 1829, or Skobelev in 1870, an élan and daring equal to that of any troops in the world. Their defects as a nation arise from various causes. First, their religious ideas are narrow and ceremonial in an astonishing degree; fasting, for instance, is strictly enforced by the Church, while no protest is made against the wide-spread drunkenness. Besides this, the monotony of the country and of the employment which it

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Such tribes as the Bashkirs in Orenburg, the Kerghis and Calmucks of the Lower Volga, the Tartars of the Crimea, and the Nogai above it, are shattered remnants of this great nation, mostly speaking Turkish dialects, Mohammedan in religion, and unable to coalesce in any way with the Russians.

supplies, tends to reduce the people to one mental level; while their rulers have, till lately, waged war with varieties of national life which they ought in wisdom to have fostered, and indeed with all reform tending to independence of spirit. Noble amends, however, have been made by Alexander II., who has not only furthered the growth of manufactures in the country, but carried in 1861, against difficulties which might have daunted a veteran reformer, the emancipation of the serfs throughout the Empire. This measure was in many respects a copy of the 'Stein' reform in Prussia described above; the agricultural communes being mostly left in possession of the lands they occupied, but paying to the former proprietors certain dues in money or labour until, by the aid of loans from the government, they can succeed in redeeming them.

On the Gulf of Finland is S. PETERSBURG (600,000), founded in 1703, on Finnish soil, by Peter the Great, who clearly perceived that without a capital on the Baltic Russia never could take rank with the great states of Europe. Its site is a marsh formed by the NEVA, which is apt to surge up through its costly pavements. It is also visited by alarming spring-floods from Lake Ladoga. In ordinary times, however, the fine construction of the quays and the buildings upon them, together with the limpid transparency of the river, make it a really grand city. It has many foreign residents; the English factory in particular has been treated with the utmost kindness by the three last emperors. From St. Petersburg to Moscow, the ancient capital, the railway was made, by express command, in an absolutely straight line, regardless of intervening towns. It does not even diverge to the ancient NOVOGOROD, once a com-

mercial republic under the princes of the house of Rurik, and a depôt of the Hanseatic league, and in later times the origin of many of the colonies which have peopled the outer provinces. Beyond this the line crosses the VALDAI, a range of low hills, in the neighbourhood of which are the headwaters of the Dnieper and Volga. Moscow itself has a population of 610,000. It was rebuilt after the conflagration of 1812 with little attempt to retain its former features, except in the Kremlin and the part of the city connected with it. Since that date many of its princely houses have come into the possession of business men, Moscow being the centre of the silk and cotton manufactures of Russia. A little north of it the great Volga thoroughfare begins with JAROSLAV, doubly important because near it the great system of canals starts across the country to S. Petersburg, carrying across by lakes Ilmen and Ladoga the corn sent up from SAMARA and SARATOV; while the city itself, like KOSTROMA, VLADIMIR, and IVANOWO, is a seat of the cotton and linen manufactures, carried on, till recently, by the labour of serfs hired from the nobles, but now gaining great impetus from their emancipation. At the junction of the Oka and Volga is NIJNI NOVOGOROD, the great entrepôt for goods from the east and south of the Empire.

\*.\* The great fair of Nijni has recently been described with much animation by Mr. Butler Johnstone. He tells how in and round hundreds of small buildings on the plain between the two rivers is annually collected a surprising variety of

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costly goods—the richest furs of the north, the fine wool of Bokhara, the cotton of Khiva, the iron of the Ural, the tea of Kiatka, the silk and carpets of Persia, and innumerable other articles, in return for which the manufactured cottons, linens, and cloth of Russia are taken, often in actual barter, from the difficulty of adjusting exchanges between the natives of remote provinces.

Below SARATOV the Volga approaches the Don within a distance of 50 miles ; so that the railway from Tsaritzin to Kalatsch practically divides the great river into two branches, the one leading to the corn depôts of ROSTOFF and TAGANROG at the head of the Sea of Azof, and the other to ASTRAKHAN, and thence to Persia and the East. As there are now not less than 300 steamboats on the Volga, it is plain of what development commerce in those regions is capable, even if Russia does not succeed in transferring to this line what has hitherto gone by way of Tabriz, Erzerum, and Trebizond from Persia to Europe. Beyond the Don is LITTLE RUSSIA,\* much of which was known till late in the last century as the UKRAINE, and as the seat of the great Cossack republic which Mazeppa ruled ; there are also Cossacks of the Volga and Caucasus. Near the mouth of the Dniester is the free port of ODESSA, founded only in 1792, but with 160,000 inhabitants, and an enormous trade. Its merchants constantly speak, with amusing impartiality,

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\* According to Mr. Butler Johnstone, the term ‘Little Russia’ is properly applied to the governments of Kiev, Tchernigov, Poltava, and Kharkov ; but is sometimes extended to mean the whole of South Russia. By ‘White Russia’ is meant the country on the various head-waters of the Dnieper.

the English, French, Italian, German, Modern Greek, and Russian languages. It would be still larger, but that the Dnieper and Dniester are much obstructed by rapids, rocks, and sandbanks, and therefore of little use for inland navigation. In the CRIMEA the fine Russian city of SEVASTOPOL, with its forts and buildings still unrestored from its ruin in 1855, contrasts strongly with the mosques and minarets of BAKTCHI SERAI, the old Tartar capital. The Yaila range, 3,000 feet high, along the south coast, is the only really charming district in civilized Russia; there is the Emperor's beautiful marine palace near Livadia; east of it is KERTCH, formerly Panticapaeum the city of Mithridates. On the north shore of the Black Sea are also the arsenal of NIKOLAIEV, at the mouth of the Bug, and the fortress of KHERSON, on the Dnieper; near the Dniester is KISCHINEV, the capital of BESSARABIA. On this side the Russian frontier has by the Treaty of Berlin been replaced at the Pruth and Danube, from which the Crimean war had removed it; similarly in Asia Minor it was made to include the port of Batoum.

A singular feature of South Russia is the existence of many German-speaking colonies, bearing the familiar names of Sarepta, Glarus, Zurich, Schaffhausen, and the like. Here, as well as at Saratov and other places, they were fixed by the Empress Catherine, with a promise of freedom for ever from military service. It was hoped that they would instruct and improve the neighbouring tribes; but as they never mixed with the natives at all, no such

result has followed. Of late they have showed an inclination to re-emigrate to America; the general system of conscription having paid no regard to their exemption. South of them are the Caucasian provinces; CIS-CAUCASIA, on the Terek, and TRANS-CAUCASIA, on the Kur and Araxes, of which the capitals are STAVROPOL and TIFLIS respectively. The latter is a strange compound of an old Turkish town, a little Paris, and a German quarter settled by emigrants from Würtemberg.

- \*.\* The two principal mountain ranges of Russia differ entirely in character. The Caucasus is a tremendous chain 150 miles wide and 700 long, with summits 15,000 feet high. Enormous spurs run in all directions from the central spine, forming the lateral valleys. At the Caspian end is the pass called the Gates of Derbend; the great central one of Dariel is 8000 feet high, and 100 miles long from the Terek to the Kur, offering the most tremendous defiles. The Ural, on the contrary, has only hills like the Vosges, wooded to the top, and with such gentle slopes that it can hardly be seen where the plain begins. On their east side, between 54° and 60°, lie the mining districts, with large quantities of platinum, magnetic iron, and copper. The rush to the gold districts has at times been vehement, making it impossible to carry on agriculture: many of the principal veins are however, now exhausted; moreover the Australian discoveries have thrown these sources of supply into the shade.

As a line from the Ural mountains to the Gulf of Finland marks the boundary between the forest region of North Russia, and the agricultural and commercial districts of the centre, so the latter are separated from the steppes by another drawn from the Caspian to the Carpathians. The character of the steppes is that of boundless wavy plains, covered with coarse grass to a

height of several feet, but bare of all wood. They extend to the Pruth, and once reached as far north as TULA, but have been encroached upon by cultivation, and are now being constantly more and more broken up by the help of English machinery. A truly Russian contrast may be remarked between KIEV on the Dnieper, the 'holy mountain' and place of pilgrimage for all, whose treasure is the vaults containing the bodies of 100 Slavonic saints, and TULA, the Russian Birmingham, which sends into every corner of the Empire its 'samovars' and other metal implements, besides arms and ammunition of all kinds.

Much of the west frontier is covered by the marshes of the upper Dnieper. To the west of these is the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, with the other Polish provinces annexed by Russia. WARSAW itself is a fine city on the Vistula, with 300,000 inhabitants, 100,000 of whom are Jews. Poland has been hitherto the 'irreconcilable,' her separate language and her Roman Catholic religion both contributing to enmity. Nothing could exceed the courage of the Polish insurrections in 1820 and 1861; the means used by Russia to repel the last of these threw a dark cloud over the glory of the great emancipation act which was just then carried out. After its repression Poland was for the first time assimilated in government to the rest of the Empire. The country grows corn on a vast scale, and has supplies of iron almost everywhere.

Along the Gulf of Riga and Finland we have the prosperous provinces of COURLAND, ESTHONIA, and LIVONIA, the capitals of which are respectively

MITTAU, REVEL, and RIGA. The Courlanders speak Lettish, a language kindred to Lithuanian; the superior classes, however, are German, as in Esthonia, and by intelligence and education constantly attain high administrative posts even in other provinces. REVEL was a member of the Hanseatic league, but is now inferior to RIGA, which has a large trade in hemp. Finally, the north-west province of Russia is FINLAND, a land of numberless lakes, surrendered by Sweden in 1809; its chief towns are ABO and HELSINGFORS with its port of SVEABORG. And at the mouth of the North Dwina is ARCHANGEL (30,000), with a large trade in corn, hemp, flax, mats, tallow, and many other articles. It has canal navigation to both the Volga and the Neva. Over the country west of the White Sea the Laplanders range up to and beyond the Norwegian frontier; and in the Arctic Ocean are the islands of NOVA ZEMLA and SPITZBERGEN. The former of these is uninhabited; but SMEERENBERG in Spitzbergen was, till lately, a place of resort for whalers.

- \*• On a recapitulation of this and the preceding chapters it would seem that the 'three Empires' of Russia, Prussia, and Austria are all in process of rapid political and social improvement. No task, in particular, can be more worthy of a statesman than what is now occupying the minds of thinking men in Russia; namely, how to encourage a system of manufactures without the poverty and distress which so often attends it. The means at present pursued for this object are, first, protection of Russian industry against foreign competition (a practice which gives, at any rate, an appearance of prosperity); and, secondly, the provision that no Russian engaged in mills shall cease to be a



member of his agricultural commune, or forfeit his share in the common land. It is hoped that the power of thus returning at any time to country pursuits, together with the help always given by the convents to worn-out servants and the like, may make actual destitution on any large scale quite impossible.

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